

# The Catholic Educational Review

DECEMBER, 1933

## A CASE FOR THE ECONOMIC THEORISTS

### INTRODUCTION

Teachers of economics have been harassed in recent years more than ever by the conviction of their students that economic principles are largely inapplicable to practical affairs. Instead of trying to overcome this mental hazard with the traditional lecture on the difficulties in building a social science, and the inability of the economist to use laboratory technique, the present writer has used another stratagem.

Many of the mistakes made in recent years by practical men entirely unfamiliar with economic principles might have been avoided had these titans of commerce had a hold on the doctrines of the Neo-Classical School, firm enough to permit of their application. Professor Hobson's prophecy, made before the World War, that France could collect the interest on her generous lendings to Russia only by continuing to lend more, is a useful example of the vision of an academician. So, too, is an account of the disgust with which the consortium of international bankers greeted President Wilson's statement in 1912 that the proposed loan to China should not be made because it would never be repaid. The experienced financiers disregarded the reasoning of this ex-professor of history. What, said they, does he know about international finance? Yet how applicable was his theory! He said a people like the Chinese, struggling toward the freedom of a democratic form of government, would not long consent to the payment of the uneconomic and inequitable taxes (tolls on goods) on which the interest and payments of the proposed loan depended.

Professor Ripley was treated to a similar response to his contention that it would prove unwise to deprive the common stock-

holder of the right to vote for the directors who supervise the management of his property. He referred to the promotion of the new Dodge Brothers Company, which provided for retention of control by the bankers who had no investment in the company except their promotional and financing services. Although one of his most acid critics was the president of the New York Stock Exchange, the board of governors of that institution very shortly passed a resolution requiring the careful scrutiny of all applications to list non-voting common shares. The bankers in the criticized promotion retired after a few years via the sale of their sickly concern, and had, for all their shrewdness and effort, less than the usual compensation received for similar services in routine financial operations.

Although these incidents do not prove that economists are always right, or financiers always wrong, they do indicate the impracticality of those practical men who ignore the advice of theoretical men. Furthermore, is it not necessary to remind ourselves as well as our students, occasionally, that a theory is not a hypothesis, but a conclusion based on ample experiment or experience?

AN ATTEMPT TO OVERCOME UNFAVORABLE STUDENT REACTION TO THE  
EXPOSITION OF ECONOMIC THEORY

Since the trend of general business turned downward in the fall of 1929 the public, including college undergraduates, has been told that "economics has failed." This charge has enough substance to it to give it wide circulation. Observe, for example, the bankruptcy of business forecasting, the recent reticence of the few New Era economists rash enough to have said, during "The Monte Carlo" days of 1928-29, that depressions in business were a thing of the past. Another factor that gives credibility to the amateurish charge that economic principles no longer apply is the cant of the central planners. They have oversimplified their confused proclamations for the radio mind, so that competition, accepted by the Neo-Classical school of economists as a regulator of prices, wages, production, consumption, and investment, has been pronounced dead. Many of these "planners" are untrained quacks who have a precarious hold on public attention as they hang on the fringe of the National Recovery movement.

However, the effects of these preachments on the student just entering upon the examination of economic principles have been deplorable. He must be convinced forthwith that the disturbances in business and finance are in part due to ignorance of the first principles of economics. The student can easily be shown that overproduction of plant and equipment in many industries—steel, for example—has come from the efforts of the managers of those industries to avoid the wholesome rigors of competition, through the establishment of a price for their product, out of line with the forces of demand and supply. Inaccurate estimates of demand, based on impression, disguised as "20 years' experience" or "common sense," have been so common as to afford rich illustrative material for the instructor. For example, the statistics of the Hotel Association (reprinted in the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle*) show rate increases in recent months although the hotel occupancy, as in Washington, has not risen above 35 per cent of total occupancy. The general manager of the French Line said last year that a great mistake had been made in reducing the rates for first class passage, because, he stated, the people who travel first class will go that way regardless of the rates. Now, the transatlantic managers are in a panic because the cabin ships bid fair to absorb the first class patronage altogether.

A related topic, the competition of substitutes, suggests another case: the inexplicable delay of railway managers in reducing passenger rates. The fabulous charge of 3.6 cents per mile has been retained during the last decade in the face of remarkable reductions in the cost of travel by private automobile, and rapid progress in the achievement of speed comparable or superior to that of the railway. On December 1st of this year railway bumbledom will put reduced rates into effect, apparently without any scientific regard for the cost of travel by private motor car.

When the class, already inculcated, it is to be hoped, with some respect for the subject, approaches the study of cost of production as a factor in the determination of price, it may be asserted that the arbitrary calculation of cost accountants and managers has led them to arrive at a cost which is pure fancy. They have been prone to ignore the necessity for paring operating costs, for ignoring some fixed charges, like interest and depreciation on unused equipment, and for constant examination of selling ex-

penses to arrive at a cost which reflects a change in demand for the product. In short, cost of production cannot be made a cover-all to include all the relevant and irrelevant expenses for which the management would like to be reimbursed in the selling price. Another error, recently so common to "men on the ground" and still a powerful factor in the establishment of prices under the NIRA, may be called the cost of production fallacy. This may be introduced during the study of price, not as a means of gloating over the mistakes of others, but to point the moral: Economic theories are practical. The recent attempts to raise retail prices by 25 per cent to cover real or expected rises in costs under the Codes were made without reference to that important component of the demand factor—purchasing power. Clearly, a 5 to 7 per cent increase in payrolls does not warrant a 25 per cent increase in the prices of consumers' goods. The action of the railways in petitioning for a 15 per cent freight rate increase in 1931 at a time when only the process server and clerk of the bankruptcy court were busy, was based on the plea of a higher cost of hauling each car as the volume of traffic declined. The Interstate Commerce Commission approved half of the increase sought. That the untutored but "practical" railway managers willingly surrendered last month the privilege of collecting half of the 15 per cent asked for in 1931 may be interpreted as an admission of error. Similarly, the chagrin of the harassed receivers of those traction companies which convinced the courts that they were entitled to a raise in fare from 7 or  $8\frac{1}{3}$  cents to 10 is a case in point. The Baltimore, Maryland, and Portland, Oregon, street railways and the Chicago Rapid Transit Company became involved in bankruptcy because their revenues were not adequate to cover operating expenses and interest on their funded debt. Now that the fares have been raised, their incomes barely cover wages, power and repairs.

All this discussion may lead up to the exposition of the principles underlying the valuation of capital equipment. Clearly, the interest, insurance, depreciation and taxes on the vast emptiness of a metropolitan hotel cannot be recovered by raising the rates on the small band of tenants who have remained faithful to the blandishments of the management. Therefore, the value of the hotel must be reappraised. Obviously, the owners of the Empire State Building in New York realize that their structure



is worth no more than the present-day cost of building a similar building across the avenue, however low the cost of building may have fallen since the Empire State was dedicated. A device to promote interest in the marginal productivity of capital is the experience of some concern well known to the class, like Kresge or Sears Roebuck, in expanding its investment. The diminishing productivity of the newly added capital, even during a period of prosperity, strikes the class as very remarkable. Of course, the diminishing productivity theory of capital assumes static conditions, which cannot be assumed to obtain over the two or three years during which expansion of capital in an enterprise takes place. This condition may be brought in after the reality of the general import of the theory has been established.

When the chapter on monetary standards is reached, the instructor must proceed warily. He may as well admit that only recently have economists come to see that the automatic excellence of the operation of the gold standard before the War was based on certain prerequisites. For example, a moderate degree of freedom of trade, quite unknown at the present time, is essential to the maintenance of the redemption of paper money in gold in a young nation heavily in debt to foreigners. The Argentine is a case in point. An occasional admission that economists have been prone to oversimplify the explanation of the operation of some of the more intricate economic institutions seems to have a good effect. The student should be impressed by scholarly frankness. The Neo-Classicist can well afford to confess a few mistakes after the carnival of error indulged in by practical men of affairs since 1920.

The study of the factors affecting the rate of interest is rich in material indicating the practicality of economic principles. The unwillingness of the federal government to guarantee more than 4 per cent on Home Loan bonds demonstrates the productivity theory of interest. The loans made at high rates of interest, 7 to 8 per cent, to German states and cities, for projects of very limited income producing power, now in partial default, were condemned by Parkes Gilbert, Agent General for Reparations, and others outside the field of finance at the time the loans were made. Similarly, the stock market "boom" may be interpreted in terms of interest theory. From 6 to 12 per cent were paid by purchasers of stocks yielding 3 to 5 per cent. Then,

again, the ruling of Congress which prohibits national banks from paying interest on commercial deposits draws attention to the neglected question: What rates must bankers pay to obtain certain amounts of deposits, and what rates can bankers afford to pay at varying stages of the business cycle for deposits of certain kinds and amounts? The banks in Pittsburgh paid 4 per cent on savings deposits for many years, those in Chicago 3 per cent. Practical bankers have probably in many cities, through competition, forced themselves to pay 1 or 1½ per cent more for deposits than was required to attract the supply of deposits essential to the profitable operation of the banks. Surely, it is not the economists' fault that the supply curve of savings remains a mere assumption.

In another field of distribution, interest in the theory of economic rent may be aroused by fixing the attention of the class on this question: Should the theory of rent, holding that urban site rents rise more rapidly than the growth of population, be restated to include a modification taking account of the cheapness and speed of urban transport, the use of the telephone and other factors which tend to minimize the importance of what used to be strategic sites? This question may be related to a discussion of the necessity for lightening the burden of taxation on the owner of urban real estate in cities like New York and Chicago. The assessed value of New York real estate has been reduced by over one billion dollars. Nearly 25 per cent of last year's taxes are delinquent. In almost any city buildings of some utility are being demolished to reduce the tax bill. Pittsburghers, probably like other city residents, are easily impressed with local cases to support the instructor's generalizations.

More difficult to clothe with reality is the vague and apparently unreal marginal productivity theory of wages. The labor unions abhor the mention of it; the employer is usually innocent of any knowledge of it. However, the present-day attempts to stimulate employment and raise wages provide the observer with all the illustrations of the productivity theory that he can use. The decline in the number employed in restaurants which are paying the high code wage, instead of five dollars a week, meals and tips, and the reduction in the compensation of employees, formerly receiving more than the minimum wage but working long

hours, show how inescapable is the operation of wage theories. The results of failure to apply the theory of wages have been evident in the decay of the anthracite coal industry because, in part, of the payment of wages above the productivity of the miner in terms of the price at which competing fuels can be obtained. Persistent unemployment, long before the depression, in the building trades, among the railway operating unions and other strongly unionized and "sheltered trades," may be alluded to here. The impracticability of applying the 30 hour week ideal of the American Federation of Labor to organized workers whose wages are already close to their productivity in all firms except the most efficient is a development to be used for pedagogical purposes.

Other wage discussions may be related by the instructor to the "Back to the Land" movement. The federal administration has just established a 200 family project near Morgantown, West Virginia. The industry chosen to provide cash income to the heads of these families, sufficient to cover their needs other than for food, is a twine factory. How will the government choose products for this type of manufacture without displacing labor elsewhere? This problem suggests the convict labor problem. The writer has found his classes interested in the effects of the several forms of convict labor on wage levels in those industries which must operate in competition with convict labor.

Finally, to facilitate exposition of the somewhat tenuous theories of profit, an excursion into the field of investment is necessary. There, the profitless industries may be identified by their inability to sell stocks for many years. For example, the street railway industry has obtained since 1924 no new capital except that advanced by car manufacturing concerns in accepting car trust certificates in partial payment for equipment. Other kinds of industry are so far gone as to have experienced the withdrawal of capital, e.g., "legitimate" theatrical enterprises, flying field companies, and wagon works. The rather sudden stoppage in 1933 of the flow of capital into shares or stocks of public utility enterprises may be said to show the probable passing of that industry into the mature, or poor profits, stage of development. The expansion of the service industries—public utilities, hotels, broadcasting, beauty parlors, education

—since 1920, in contrast to stagnation in many of the so-called basic industries, may be said to forecast the persistence of profitable opportunities in the sale of services.

No doubt, much of the foregoing is commonplace experience to many instructors in the principal courses in economics. Nevertheless, these devices were found useful in breaking down the almost invincible obstinacy of seven successive classes of bank clerks, many of whom took the course only because it was one of the requirements for the coveted certificate of proficiency. This experience may suggest a better method of attaining the same end.

GEORGE K. McCABE.

Department of Economics,  
University of Pittsburgh.

## NEW EDITION OF WARD METHOD

A copy of "Music—First Year" by Mrs. Justine Ward has just reached us.<sup>1</sup> A cursory glance shows us that it is "First Year—Revised." Our acquaintance with the little book in its first form makes the perusal of this all the more a real pleasure.

The series of the Ward textbooks is an answer to the "Motu Proprio" issued by Pope Pius X. It was wise—this desire of the Holy Father to have the congregation active participants in the services of the Church. So it has been in the days of the Infant Church; it was only in later years that to the sanctuary and the choir was given over the music of the services. Had the wish of the Church from the beginning been carried down through the years, we would now be singing three hundred million strong.

Justine Ward, more than any other, heard with loyal Catholic devotion the cry from Peter's Chair, and her soul became attuned to the soul of the Church. She realized fully that, if the "Motu Proprio" was to go into effect, our children must be given the solid education which would apply not only to modern music but also to the Liturgical melodies of the Church, and, in particular, to the Gregorian Chant.

Although much of the material used in the earlier editions is here presented in a comparatively new cast, even the most critical will be unable to find any change whatever in the pedagogical principles involved, but, on the other hand, will discern, lighted by the experience of twenty years in this field, a more direct path to the ultimate end.

As is mentioned in the Preface, in particular the study of Rhythm has been approached from a new angle which has been tested in the schools and found better adapted to the temperament of little children; at the same time, judged from a purely musical standpoint, the new method of approach has been found more direct and fundamental than was the study of Rhythm in the earlier editions.

In connection with the way in which Rhythm is handled, we would add a word in favorable criticism of one point which this edition emphasizes in no small way—namely, "Gestures." In

<sup>1</sup> Music—First Year, by Justine Ward. Revised Edition. Illustrations by Frances Delehanty. The Catholic Education Press, Washington, D. C.

the very beginning of its existence the only mode of expression possible to the child is by signs or gestures, and it seems a happy thought to utilize this tendency in the study of Music, especially of Rhythm—which finds its most natural expression in the graceful movements of the body. Unhampered by technicalities, the aim is to let the Rhythm enter into every word or phrase the children sing. They are made to feel the rise and fall of each word or phrase—this is defining rhythm by the actual doing. This particular phase of the work would seem, also, to introduce another oft-longed-for element—the appreciation of good music, for the child who learns his rhythmic gestures to such musical settings as those furnished by Schubert's "Moment Musical" or Brahms' "Hungarian Dance" will certainly breathe in from childhood a love of the good and refined in music.

There are other new features in the "First Year—Revised," among them the following:

A: The Plan of Lessons at the various stages is unusually helpful and lends itself to many arrangements. It is such that any teacher with the least bit of ingenuity can build upon it.

B: The material for ear tests, the suggestions for the early stages of Musical Form and for Melody writing are an asset, since teachers are usually diffident in handling these points.

It is then our earnest hope that the idea of the author soon be carried out in its entirety, and it is in the power of the Catholic Teaching Body to realize this hope. We are the sowers sent out by Holy Mother Church to plant in the hearts of her little ones of today the seed of the Chant which will make them the Catholic Choirs of the future. And, indeed, this is nothing new. In the early ages of the Infant Church we know that thus the Liturgy was rendered. What a consoling thought—to know that we are paving the way to a future when the people, as a whole, will no longer simply assist at the Services of Holy Church, but will actually take part in them, returning thus to the true ideal of "*Renewing All Things In Christ.*"

SISTER M. AGNESINE, S.S.N.D.



## THE MISJUDGED ANDREW JOHNSON

Andrew Johnson's story has been told by his political and personal enemies. Their appraisal of his career has been handed down and accepted with little modification by historians even by so worthy and late a scholar as James Ford Rhodes in his monumental history of the United States from the Compromise of 1850 to the end of the Reconstruction (1877). And quite naturally most of our textbook writers and teachers have portrayed an unreal Johnson to generations of students. Too many teachers are rigid conformists; too few of them are inclined to go behind the printed page. Only recently have research scholars—not exponents of the new biography save as new biography preserves heroes from whitewashing—analyzed all the materials dealing with President Johnson's public and private life with the result that a new Andrew Johnson has been discovered.<sup>1</sup>

In a wretched cottage in Raleigh, North Carolina, Andrew was born, on December 29, 1808, to Jacob and Mary (McDonough), poor whites or mudsills. Jacob Johnson occupied a servile position; but, as a porter in a bank, he must have borne a character for integrity. He was a worthy father, although there are writers who would find a more distinguished sire for Andrew even at the expense of the boy's legitimacy. But in this respect Johnson fared rather better than Lincoln. At all events, Jacob Johnson was a man of spirit, sacrificing his life to save Colonel Henderson of the *Raleigh Star* and another gentleman from drowning. Their gratitude was obviously not expressed in a mercenary way, for Mary McDonough was left in honorable poverty with two orphaned sons, William, aged eight years, and Andy, three years. She found another husband, one named Dougherty, who proved an economic liability rather than an asset. The McDonoughs and the Doughertys had an Irish background like many North Carolinians who were immigrants from Ulster or descendants of Ulsterites who came directly from

---

<sup>1</sup> St. George L. Sioussat's sketch in the *Dictionary of American Biography*, 10 (1933) 81-91, which includes a critical bibliography; Robert W. Winston, *Andrew Johnson, Plebeian and Patriot* (1928); L. P. Stryker, *Andrew Johnson; A Study in Courage* (1929); G. F. Milton, *The Age of Hate: Andrew Johnson and the Radicals* (1930); and H. K. Beale, *The Critical Year: A Study of Andrew Johnson and Reconstruction* (1930).

Ireland or indirectly by way of Virginia or the West Indian Isles in the eighteenth century. And not all of the Ulsterites were Presbyterians. Some were Anglicans and some were "Papists." Few of them, however, retained the hereditary faiths in their purity. Johnson's mother was in all likelihood of Presbyterian stock with a creed infected by itinerant evangelical preachers. Yet she may possibly have been the descendant of an Irish Catholic transport or indentured servant or rebel who had lost the faith through intermarriage or the lack of priestly ministrations. Whatever the religious background may have been, Andrew Johnson had a Celtic strain in his blood—a touch of idealism that partly explains his career.

As soon as the boys could be turned out, William and Andy were apprenticed to a local tailor. Obviously the boys grew tired of their lot, for on June 24, 1824, the *Raleigh Gazette* advertised their escape and their master's guarantee of a ten-dollar reward for their return. It is not likely that the notice challenged much attention, for runaway apprentices, indentured servants, and slaves were frequently posted in the press. As a fugitive from justice, Andrew practiced his trade, failed in love because of his lowly, vagrant condition, and returned within two years, strangely but honorably offering to work out his apprenticeship. Apparently, this sacrifice was not demanded, for Andrew and his family migrated to Greeneville, Tennessee, covering a fair share of the journey on foot as did most of the early settlers who trekked westward.

Tennessee offered a better future than Carolina. In a new country, poor men without background and with little education are more likely to succeed. It was wilder and more democratic. It asked no questions, for it wanted settlers. And many of its settlers left their past behind them with their debts and their misfortunes. In primitive Tennessee, there were few slaves and few men of wealth but a growing number of migrants from the Old South and of immigrants from Europe. It was Andrew Jackson's country, and Jacksonian Democracy was more than a party on the frontier—it was an established creed.

In Greeneville, the sign "A Johnson Tailor Shop" attracted customers who were satisfied with the suits of homespun cloth made by the new tailor. Johnson prospered and married Eliza McCardle, the thrifty daughter of a deceased Scottish shoe-

maker (May 17, 1827). In a short time, he was able to move out of the lean-to room back of the shop into a separate house which he purchased. The shop itself became a resort of loiterers who were more interested in politics than in business. Johnson soon developed political ambitions, in the meantime improving his meager education by hiring a boy to read to him while he plied scissors and needle. In 1829, he was elected an alderman by a combination of laborers and mechanics who were plotting to liberate Greeneville from the controlling Whig aristocracy. After three terms as an alderman, he was elected mayor three times. In 1833, he was chosen as a Jacksonian Democrat to the constitutional convention which modernized the constitution of 1796 by broadening the suffrage, guaranteeing greater freedom of the press, and abolishing imprisonment for debt. By continuous appearance in debates and on the stump during campaigns, Johnson was making himself known throughout eastern Tennessee.

While not intimate with Andrew Jackson, he obtained that worthy's commendation through his association with Judge Hugh Lawson White. It was not long until Johnson was dubbed a second Jackson by the hill people. In 1835, he was in the legislature making demagogical appeals to the people, urging economy, opposing railroad construction on the score that horses would be frightened and that owners of taverns and horse-drawn vehicles would be injured, fighting the custom of prayers by a chaplain as a union of church and state, and voting against macadamized roads as a modern innovation and a possible source of corruption. In 1837, he was defeated, but two years later he was returned by his constituency over a Whig rival. Exposed graft in connection with road-building had justified his earlier fears. Now more cautious, he won wide notice by his pronouncements against the competition of convict with free labor. In a sense, Johnson was a laborite in politics. In 1840, he was for Van Buren in the national convention and stumped for the Democratic ticket in a furious manner. In 1841, he was in the state senate. With other Democrats, he was able to prevent the election of a United States Senator for two years when the man of their choice could not be named. He aroused hostility by urging that a non-slave state be created out of the counties of East Tennessee and the mountainous non-slave-hold-

ing counties of the neighboring states. As a mechanic, Johnson was no friend of the aristocratic Democrats, although no Democrat was more familiar with his party's literature or more capable of denouncing Whiggery in all its forms.

Stronger than his party, Johnson defeated for Congress an aristocratic Democrat, Col. John Aiken, despite a Whig-Democratic alliance of the better folk of the region who would keep the mechanic down (1842). Johnson may have been a "poor white," but he was becoming well-to-do as his shop required a half dozen journeymen tailors to clothe his Democratic friends and protégés. Two years later, he defeated Parson W. G. Brownlow, whose offensive charges indicated the violence of the campaign. But Johnson could not be dislodged from his seat until 1852, when the legislature gerrymandered his district into a Whig stronghold.

In Congress, Johnson satisfied his district, but he was not a party hack. He lived modestly on Capitol Hill, read intensely, and listened to the debates in the Senate of such gigantic leaders as Clay, Calhoun, Webster, and Benton. In his maiden speech, he favored an act which remitted Jackson's fine for contempt of court in New Orleans in 1815. He challenged John Q. Adams in his fight for the right of petition, but appears to have won the regard of the ex-President. Unlike most Southerners, he favored the Oregon Bill, nor could he be forced into line by the contemptuous allusions of Congressmen Jefferson Davis and Thomas Bayly to tailors, nor charges by other colleagues that he was a sectional traitor if not an abolitionist. On occasion, he opposed men of both sections, but in general he associated more freely with Northerners. In 1846, he offered a resolution that the chaplain should preach Christ's Word without pay. He attacked convict labor and fought the cause of laborers in Federal employment while denouncing Washington clerks as idlers and political favorites. At no time did he lack courage in vote or in speech. As an orator, he was pedantic but spoke the language of common sense. Nor had he the reputation of a heavy drinker in a Congress in which so many members were given to strong drink. To Democrats, Johnson was a mechanic-statesman. To Whigs, he was a Jacobin, a dangerous demagogue elected by "Catholics, Irish, and thugs." This attack he merited, for defending the underdog, the foreigner, and the laborer was a crime in the minds of the

Whig aristocracy with its hereditary Federalist attitude toward the common people.

Despite a courageous attack on slavery, Johnson was elected governor in 1853. As a follower of Jefferson, he walked to his inaugural. Some of his policies were rather advanced for the time. Condemning corrupt extravagance in public buildings, he urged a state tax for education; and education was backward in Tennessee, although his governorship saw an improvement in schools and the establishment of a public library for the State. He successfully advocated the purchase of Jackson's old "Hermitage" as a memorial. Steps were taken to promote mechanical and agricultural fairs. He urged the legislature to instruct the State's representatives in Congress to support the Homestead Bill and to forward the direct election of the President and Vice-President by popular vote. It must be remembered that it was the West that favored a more liberal land policy which would give federal lands free to actual settlers. The South opposed such legislation as an encouragement to the settlement of the West and the creation of new states which would destroy Southern domination of the Federal Government.

The common people of Tennessee were with Johnson. His very eccentricities won them, as when Johnson made a suit of clothes for Judge Pepper, a former blacksmith, who had wrought a shovel for him. Nor was he injured by a cynic's observation when asked how Johnson was doing in Congress: "Fairly—boarding with a butcher and skinning cattle for his board." Nor was he ruined with the Irish voters by the charge that he had voted in Congress against an appropriation of money for famine relief, when he proved that he had given fifty dollars of his own money to the cause. Only in his advocacy of the Kansas-Nebraska Act did he approach the slave power of the South. Johnson's views were somewhat strange to aristocrats as his belief that all men who aspired "to be leaders in political affairs shall be required to undergo such probation in order to identify them in feeling, in sentiment, in interest, in sympathy, and even in prejudice, with the great mass of people whose toil and sweat it is that produces all that sustains the government in every department, both State and Federal."

In the Know-Nothing campaign of 1854, Johnson evidenced the courage of a Governor Henry Wise of Virginia or of a Stephen



A. Douglas in the hotbed of nativism in Philadelphia. Proscription of foreigners and of Catholics—and, in his State, of Masons—was most repugnant to him. And, he was not defending Catholics in a Catholic center, but in a region where they were scattered and lowly and without political strength. In Congress, he had fought nativism, one time in debate asking Clingman of North Carolina: "Are the bloodhounds of proscription and persecution to be let loose on the Irish? Is the guillotine to be set up in a republican form of government?" In a state-wide canvass, he declared at Murfreesboro: "It is not in my nature when the poor Irishman leaves his own country and seeks America, as the home of the oppressed and the asylum of the exile, to meet him on the shore and forbid his entrance." Later, he shouted from the stump—and as a stump speaker with fiery zeal and the language of the lowly, Johnson had few peers: "Show me a Know-Nothing and I will show you a loathesome reptile on whose neck every honest man should set his foot. . . . Why, such a gang are little better than John A. Murrell's clan of outlaws." There were enraged men in the audience who cocked their pistols, but Andy Johnson stood his ground. Democratic managers were worried lest the ministers make good their threat to organize against the party. But Johnson would not soft-pedal his remarks, declaring, "Gentlemen, I will make that same speech tomorrow if it blows the Democratic Party to hell." And he did in a Whig center, daring his opponents to assassinate him as he fondled a gun. A year later, he campaigned in the same strain, Parson Brownlow in the *Nashville Banner* quoting Johnson at Knoxville as calling "the American Party a gang of horse thieves and counter-feiters." Whereas Democratic organs explained that Johnson had really said: "The American Party charges that both Whigs and Democrats are corrupt and claims that it is the only pure party, being made up of both the old parties. How can purity come out of corruption? . . . If we have one gang of horse thieves and another gang of counterfeiters, can an honest organization be formed from these two?" As a result of a speech in Nashville (Aug. 20, 1855) in which he read the political oath of Know Nothings with the comment, "Such a person is not a freeman but a slave, and his liberty is controlled by a Know-Nothing conclave," Johnson was challenged to a duel. Fortunately the matter was compromised, for he was more certain with a needle than



with a gun. Such campaigning required courage and principle. It would have been more convenient to have been politically prudent to have dodged the foreign and Catholic issue as Abraham Lincoln succeeded in doing in 1860.

However, Johnson not only retained his own following, but he gained ground with the voters of Tennessee who had little sympathy with politico-religious intolerance. Johnson was sent by a friendly legislature (1857) to the Senate, where his friends were Lewis Cass of Michigan, Sam Houston of Texas, and James Jones of Tennessee, a former tanner of hides, and his marked enemies were David Broderick, an interesting Irishman from California, and Jefferson Davis of Mississippi. Their enmity was due to his opposition to an increase in the standing army and to the Pacific Railroad project on the score that the Central Government had no constitutional right to engage in railroad construction. Again, Johnson was a stronger unionist than an advocate of state rights. Yet he was no abolitionist, fearing, as he did, the consequences of the emancipation of millions of illiterate negroes. Therefore he supported Jefferson Davis's resolution that the government should give slave property the same protection as other property. He did however view slavery much as did another poor white, H. R. Helper in his *Impending Crisis* (1859). And Helper's book was proscribed below the Mason and Dixon Line. Johnson continued his advocacy of a Homestead Act in which he had become interested in 1846 and which he had introduced in Congress in 1850. He supported the Act passed by Congress in 1860 and vetoed by President Buchanan on the demand of Southern friends. It was a similar bill which was passed in 1862 with Lincoln's signature when the South had withdrawn from the Union. And it was this measure which gave one hundred and sixty acres of western land to bona-fide settlers who were citizens or who had proclaimed their intention of becoming citizens and which accounted for the rapid increase in western population and in the agricultural area. Johnson's fight for the West and its settlers had been won.

In the critical Democratic Convention of Charleston (1860), Johnson as a favorite son received the ballots of Tennessee and one vote from Minnesota until his name was finally withdrawn on the thirty-sixth ballot. He was not destined to become a dark-horse leader of Democracy. In the campaign, he supported

Breckinridge in the hope that his election would strengthen the Unionists of the South and prevent secession, which he foretold if the Republicans named Lincoln. Unlike most of the Democratic campaigners, he was not violent in denunciation of Lincoln and Black Republicanism. When the Senate convened after the election of Lincoln and Hamlin, Johnson occupied an independent position. He was not a Northerner nor was he a Southerner. On December 18, 1860, he denounced abolitionism, the personal liberty laws of various states, and secession. He was an Andrew Jackson unionist. He harkened back to nullification in 1832. He was in the heart of the conflict. Davis decried him as a traitor to his section. Alexander Stephens realized that his speech had solidified the North and given it heart. Down in Texas, his own brother was voting for secession. Among the Northern group, Seward was eulogistic and Simon Cameron, the Republican boss of Pennsylvania, described Johnson as lion-hearted. In laboring sections of the country, which had little in common with slavery, Johnson became a prophet. Vilified and burned in effigy in the South, Johnson, the mechanic, became a hero in the North. In the legislature of Tennessee, a resolution asking for his resignation was dropped partly due to the efficient lobbying of his son Robert, a lawyer and a member of the legislature. However, Tennessee remained behind Johnson; for it defeated the call for a secession-convention by a popular vote of 67,369 to 54,156.

Johnson became Lincoln's authority on Tennessee and on the South; for he alone of the Southern Senators remained loyal. He toured the State denouncing treason. He cried out before maddened crowds of Southern Democrats. While his family and immediate friends were Unionists, he found himself aligned with his old Whig enemies. Compromise was out of the question. Fort Sumpter had fallen. Lincoln called for troops. Governor Harris refused to answer that call, and as dictator virtually allied Tennessee with the Confederacy. Johnson with his old enemy Parson Brownlow stumped the State, but to no avail for the June election took Tennessee out of the Union despite the strong Unionist spirit of the eastern counties. When conscription was enforced, some Unionists fled to Ohio. Some 13,000 joined the Federal forces. Robert Johnson raised a regiment, Dr. Charles Johnson was recruiting for the North, and Mary

Johnson's husband, Dan Stover, commanded a Federal regiment. Brownlow was in jail; Johnson escaped and spoke for the Union in Kentucky and Ohio; Congressman Maynard of East Tennessee continued to sit in the House but Congressman Thomas Nelson was captured on his way to Washington. Not until 1862 with the victories of Generals Thomas and Grant was Tennessee brought under Federal control.

Thereupon, Johnson was named military governor by Lincoln. He put Unionists in office, suspended the *Nashville Times*, took over the railroads, declared martial law, imprisoned leading rebels including some ministers, relieved suffering by confiscating properties of Confederates, and granted amnesty for all save the chief Confederate supporters. Among those who came under the amnesty was a brother of President Polk. While all Tennessee was not freed until General Rosecrans delivered Knoxville, in 1864, Johnson did as much as any man to win the State. Of this Lincoln was well aware when he maintained that "No man has a right to judge Andrew Johnson in any respect who has not suffered as much and done as much as he for the Nation's sake." For his service, he was rewarded. In 1864, he was given second place on the Union-Republican ticket and probably strengthened Lincoln among War Democrats. However, so controlling a Republican boss as Thaddeus Stevens of Pennsylvania asked: "Can't the Republican Party find someone for vice-president without going into a damned little rebel Territory and picking him out?" And naturally, Democrats fighting to elect General McClellan ridiculed the mongrel Republican ticket as "composed of gawks, rail-splitters, and tailors." Tennessee with its "iron-clad oath" eliminated enough Democratic voters so that it went Republican by a good majority—leaving only Delaware, Kentucky, and New Jersey to the Democrats with their anti-war platform.

Governor Johnson came to Washington for the inaugural, made a stump speech, and was obviously drunk, having taken too much brandy for a bad cold. His friends, including Lincoln and Secretary McCulloch, maintained that he was no drunkard. Apparently there was no other slip, although Johnson appeared vindictive with his insistence that Jefferson Davis and other leading rebels should be hanged. It was like Lloyd George's political cry of "Hang the Kaiser" at the end of the

World War. A man of courage, as soon as he was awakened on the night Lincoln was shot, Johnson accompanied by Major O'Bierne visited the President despite the advice of friends who feared that he was unnecessarily endangering his life.

On April 15th, Johnson became President, taking the oath of office in his hotel. A few weeks later, he moved into the White House with his entourage: Colonel Robert, who served as a secretary, young Andrew, who attended a Catholic school in Georgetown, his daughter Martha and her husband, Senator David Patterson of Tennessee, Mrs. Stover, his daughter, and a troop of grandchildren. All seemed happy. On drives, the presidential carriage was crowded with children. The White House lawns were cropped short by Jersey cows. All was informal—Cabinet members and friends visiting back and forth; visitors of all kinds, Republicans and rebels, received courteously. Johnson retained the old Cabinet. Radical Republicans hoping to control Johnson were secretly pleased at the change. War Democrats expected consideration and patronage. Even the South hoped that an ex-Southerner would not be too severe especially as authority was toning down his earlier bitterness. The happy days soon passed.

When the Lincoln conspirators were tried and condemned to death, including Mrs. Surrat, on flimsy evidence, Johnson refused to exercise any clemency on behalf of the poor woman or even see her distracted daughter. Two years later her son was acquitted in a civil court. The Radicals who wanted blood prevented a presidential pardon for Mrs. Surrat (incidentally, a Catholic) by suppressing favorable evidence in Booth's diary and the trial board's recommendation for mercy. Johnson never forgave Secretary Stanton for this suppression, and he was never able to explain away his own failure to act when he was later taunted with the unfortunate landlady's death.

Following somewhat in Lincoln's steps, Johnson commenced to reconstruct the South. Conventions were called to ratify the Thirteenth Amendment. Civil government was being restored, and pardons were plentiful while a general amnesty covered all but the leaders in the civil and military life of the Confederacy. Congressmen were elected and were presenting themselves in Washington. So moderate a course provoked admiration in liberal ranks but aroused Speaker Colfax, Thaddeus Stevens,

Benjamin Wade, Charles Sumner, and the so-called Radical Republicans. They would make treason odious by breaking the South and punishing rebels. They would make Reconstruction the function of Congress. And they would make the legislative branch of the government supreme in a studied reaction from the late dictatorship of the executive. Had Lincoln lived he would have faced their hostility, but his tact and recognized position would doubtlessly have salvaged his policies and kept the peace. For Johnson, they had little respect and no love, now that he failed to be pliable in their hands. Johnson had courageously refused to ingratiate the political bosses and never was the Republican Party more dominated by a small coterie of representatives and senators. In justification of the Black Republicans, it may be added that they probably represented a majority of the voters of the North whose hatred of the South had not grown less since Lee's surrender. They loved negroes only at a distance. They would win the traitorous planter aristocracy. They accepted Carl Schurz's official report that the South was not loyal. And they welcomed the refusal of Congress to seat Southern representatives.

The fight was on. Johnson engaged in tactless personalities. He failed in handling the news correspondents. Radicals were forcing race equality in the South, while Southern States were establishing Black Codes and condoning race riots in New Orleans and Memphis. Johnson vetoed the Freedmen's Bureau Bill and saw the Civil Rights Act passed over his veto. The Radicals forced through the Fourteenth Amendment, which they were soon to force upon the States. Parson Brownlow as governor drove the amendment through in Tennessee, and he so notified his friends in Washington with a reference "to the dead in the White House." Neither man nor the office counted with such politicians. A convention in Philadelphia of Moderates, Copper Heads, Whigs, and Southerners only further inspired Radicals to fight along a united front in the campaign of 1866.

In the hope of obtaining a Moderate Congress, Johnson carried the fight to the voters in "the Swing Around the Circle" in which his party, including Grant, Seward, Farragut, Randall, and Welles, made stops in Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Louisville, and St. Louis. Johnson called for the Constitution and the Union of Thirty-six States, but did not



fail to denounce his enemies in picturesque style. A victim of hecklers and journalists and cartoonists, Johnson was presented as a sorry picture to the country, although he himself and most of the members of his party felt that some good was accomplished. In a country given to drink, surprising use was made of exaggerated if not libelous stories of Andrew Johnson's drinking on the tour. And Thomas Nast's cartoons and Petroleum V. Nasby's humorous thrusts were more damaging than Greeley's or Fordney's editorials. Grant became ambitious, feeling that much of the shouting was in his honor and affecting displeasure that the President was introduced in St. Louis by Congressman John Hogan, an anti-War Democrat whose life since leaving his native Mallow was a curious mixture of preaching Methodism, of business, and of politics. The country spoke and it repudiated Johnson and his Moderate policies. Radical reconstruction was forced upon the South, and our history was blackened by its tyranny.

To further strip the President of his constitutional powers, Congress passed the Tenure of Office Act over his veto (March 2, 1867), an act which Secretary of War Edward M. Stanton once regarded as unconstitutional. This law intended to protect appointive officers, and more especially Cabinet officers, from presidential removal without the consent of the Senate. Recognizing Stanton as a personal and political enemy, Johnson suspended him on his refusal to resign and appointed Grant in his place. The Senate failed to concur, Grant withdrew and thereafter associated himself with the Radicals in power. Thereupon, Johnson removed Stanton and appointed General Thomas as Secretary of War. The latter was arrested immediately but discharged for fear of forcing a decision of the Supreme Court on the constitutionality of the law. The House of Representatives ordered the impeachment of Johnson by a vote of 126 to 47 and named as managers of the prosecution John A. Bingham, G. S. Boutwell, J. F. Wilson, John A. Logan, Alexander Stevens, and the notorious Ben Butler. With Johnson's selection of Henry Stanbery, William Evarts, and Benjamin R. Curtis as his chief lawyers of defense, the trial commenced (March 11, 1868) with charges of violation of the Tenure of Office Act, which would be retroactive as it affected Stanton, and with alleged attacks upon Congress. In a heated trial in which the presiding officer, Chief



Justice Chase, appeared to advantage, and Grant to great disadvantage as one who lobbied for conviction, Johnson was saved by one ballot in the senatorial vote of 35 to 19, seven honest Republicans voting with the Democratic minority. A single vote, it has well been said, saved the Presidency as a constitutional institution. Stanton was finally removed (Feb. 21, 1868), and the appointment of Thomas was confirmed by the Senate.

Johnson bore himself well during his trial, attended to his executive duties and insisted that his acquittal was a victory for the Constitution. A man of no creed, he was aroused when the Northern Methodist Church petitioned Congress to turn him out of office, and he found comfort in attendance at St. Patrick's Catholic Church in Washington, where religion was divorced from politics and where the spirit of equality appealed to him. In the Democratic Convention, he garnered sixty-five votes, but failed to win the South. And the nomination went to Governor Seymour, who in turn lost the election to Grant. In his last weeks as President, Johnson extended pardons to Southerners who were not under indictment and issued a proclamation in accordance with the law for the readmission of several old states. In a farewell address, he condemned the illegal methods of Congress, the military rule in the South, and compulsory negro suffrage as a plot to Republicanize the South. In the inauguration, he took no part as Grant had announced that he would have no association with him.

Going home to Greeneville, he received a touching reception from the people of the countryside and announced in the words reputed to Cardinal Wolsey:

An old man broken with the storms of state  
Is come to lay his weary bones among ye  
Give him a little earth for charity.

However, Johnson did not retire. He toured Tennessee, and was well received save by extremists. In 1869, a change of one vote in the legislature would have sent him to the United States Senate. While Grant used the patronage to aid in his defeat, Johnson would not permit his friends to buy votes—no unusual procedure at the time. In 1872, he was defeated in the campaign for Congressman-at-Large by a Democrat who actually charged him with Mrs. Surrat's death. A year later, he was sick with the cholera, for, unlike most of the leading families, the John-

sons did not seek immunity in flight but remained to care for the sick and dying. In 1875, the legislature by a coalition vote of Liberal Republicans and Moderates sent him to the Senate.

Johnson had come back. Many of his old enemies were dead or had been repudiated by a reformed party. Only thirteen of them were to be faced when he took his seat on March 5, 1875. And, they were quite as embarrassed as "the old traitor." John Sherman shook hands as did Oliver Morton after some hesitation. Vice-President Henry Wilson and Carl Schurz stood. The press was not especially bitter. The Grant régime had brought about a reaction against corruption. And this corruption Johnson denounced in a characteristic speech—probably his last. He died, July 28, 1875, without a preacher, and the Masons took charge of his funeral. And the Supreme Court almost fifty years later declared the Tenure of Office Act, which had been modified in Grant's administration and partially repealed in 1887, under which he had been prosecuted, unconstitutional. [Myers, *Administratrix, vs. United States*, 272 *U. S. Reports* 52-295.]

RICHARD J. PURCELL.

Department of History,  
The Catholic University of America.

## THE READING OF PROBLEMS IN ARITHMETIC<sup>1</sup>

Research in arithmetic has been extensive but investigations in the learning and teaching of computation outnumber studies of problem solving. The complex nature of the processes by which problems are solved has undoubtedly retarded research studies although the importance of problem solving should attract a corresponding degree of emphasis. Some very significant studies relating to problem solving have been made but many issues remain obscure. The present series of articles on problem solving in arithmetic is a critical review of the literature pertaining to the reading of problems, pupils' procedures in problem solving, the grade placement of problems, methods of teaching, and the measurement of ability in arithmetic.

The initial task in problem solving is the reading of the problem. Although there are indications that differences in general reading ability do not account for the differences in arithmetical problem solving, the reading task is an essential part of the total activity. Pupils must in some way or other derive information from the written problem that will guide them in their choice of methods with which to solve the problem. Ineffectual reading will necessarily result in faulty comprehension of the facts and relations that the problem contains. In the simplest of problems, there may be no indication that the pupil has failed to understand the statement for the numbers alone may indicate the process to be employed. Such a problem may be nothing more than a task in computation since the pupil has failed to understand the situation which the problem presents and went about the task in a trial-and-error way. The mere fact that the problem involved a verbal statement does not necessarily mean that any problem solving ability was employed. But questions that require problem solving ability necessarily involve a comprehension of the problem that can be gleaned only through accurate reading. There are many indications that some pupils ordinarily depend on various irrelevant conditions to guide them in their reactions to the presentation of an arithmetic problem. Pupils are taught certain computation facts which are then embedded

---

<sup>1</sup>This is the first of a series of articles on the learning and teaching of problem solving in arithmetic.

in problems. The mental attitude produced leads the children to seek the numbers that the problem contains. These constitute the cues that dictate the procedure that is then employed. There is no more understanding of the problem than there would have been if the numbers had been presented alone. The fact that the correct answer is forthcoming is no proof that the child understood the problem. The presentation of a verbal problem and the production of a correct answer do not prove that the mental processes were those to which the name problem solving is ordinarily reserved. Problem solving ability is the capacity to think critically, to select the pertinent facts, to perceive their relations, and to educe a new relationship among the facts that were selected. To become aware of the facts necessitates reading and problem solving without comprehension of the problem is problem solving in name only.

All types of reading involve a knowledge of the meanings of the words. The synthesis of these meanings into the total meaning is possible only when each of the individual meanings is clear. While some words may remain vague or unknown and their significance be appreciated from the context or the meanings of the other words, the reading difficulty is thereby enhanced. Should the unfamiliar words be important words in the sentence, there is little possibility that the meaning of the problem will be sufficiently clear to guide the selection of the methods leading to a solution. General reading ability parallels closely the extent of the vocabulary. The vocabulary of arithmetic problems includes words that are encountered in all types of reading and other words that belong to arithmetic only. The mastery of common words and of the fundamental habits of reading must be supplemented by a knowledge of the meanings of the terms that arithmetic employs. The vocabulary of arithmetic includes some words that are commonly found in all reading but the special significance attached to them in arithmetic may easily be overlooked. Such words are frequently presumed to be known whereas their meaning in arithmetic is quite vague. The word *borrow* is a common word, occurring in the third thousand of Thorndike's list. But not more than half of the children in a fourth and a fifth grade could explain what it meant. Thirty children out of forty in the sixth grade had an adequate idea of its meaning. It is quite clear that most instruction in subtrac-

tion would be meaningless to such children. Other terms such as quotient, decimal, and divisor obviously belong to arithmetic alone. Clear conception of the meanings of these words are indispensable in any activity in which they occur. The vocabulary of arithmetic is a source of considerable difficulty and inadequate knowledge of the words will necessarily be a tremendous obstacle to progress.

The most extensive study of the vocabulary of arithmetic is that of Buswell and John (3). Earlier studies by Hunt (5), Heightshoe (4), and Brooks (1) were utilized in compiling a list of five hundred terms commonly used in the teaching of arithmetic in the first six grades. Each term in the list occurred in at least one of the three studies that Buswell and John employed. Twenty-seven textbooks contributed to the three studies and in their report, Buswell and John state the number of books for each grade in which the words were found. The authors maintain that the list is not intended to be an exhaustive inventory of the vocabulary of arithmetic. Since it is based on texts used only in the first six grades, it cannot be considered as representative of arithmetic throughout the elementary school. But the reliability of the list for the first six grades is probably very high. Hunt found that out of a total vocabulary of 2993 different words in six third-grade arithmetic textbooks, 306 or 10.2 per cent of the words belonged to the technical vocabulary of arithmetic. Heightshoe listed 483 words that occurred in at least one of four textbooks in arithmetic but which did not occur at all in any of the four readers for the second and third grades that she examined. Of the 483 words that seemed distinctively arithmetical, 129 occurred in at least two of the four books. In five third-grade arithmetics, Brooks found 429 different arithmetical terms. Of these 312 occurred in at least two of the five books. Two hundred and thirty-six occurred in at least three books. These figures suggest that the list of five hundred words compiled by Buswell and John includes the vast majority of the important arithmetical terms needed in the first six grades. Many of the words are not restricted in their usage to arithmetic. Differences of opinion will prevail regarding the advisability of listing many of these words in such a vocabulary as Buswell and John have compiled. But errors in this direction are insignificant in comparison with those of omission.

Pressey has formed a list of approximately four hundred words that were believed by the author to be important in arithmetic (7). This list was not checked against any series of texts or other criterion and while useful in some ways, it has been supplanted by the more carefully prepared list of Buswell and John. Pressey and Elam have recently published a "fundamental vocabulary" of arithmetic (8). Their initial list included over one thousand words of which 274 were selected on the basis of their frequency. The importance of each word was rated by more than one hundred elementary school teachers and 326 words were selected in this way. All the words in the preliminary list were rated also for general social value and one hundred and three words were regarded as being sufficiently important to be retained. One hundred and seventeen words were found to conform to all the standards and these constitute the list which Pressey and Elam present. In the published list, the words are classified according to related meanings but no indication of the total value of the word is given. A comparison of the Pressey and Elam list with the Buswell and John list reveals twenty-eight words that are in the Pressey list that are not found at all in the Buswell and John list. Some of these such as hypotenuse, angle, sphere, policy, premium, and indorser belong to the seventh and eighth grades. The list seems to err by exclusion rather than otherwise. The following words occurred in every one of the twenty-seven texts on which the Buswell-John list is based but are not found at all in the Pressey-Elam list:

add	all	answer	buy	change	column	cost
count	each	feet	figure	half	large	left
less	long	many	measure	money	much	
number	sold	subtraction				

While some of these words may have been left out of the Pressey-Elam list on the grounds that they belonged to the general reading vocabulary, it is difficult to understand why such words as answer, count, measure, number, and subtraction were omitted. The deletion of these words scarcely justifies the title of the list as a "fundamental vocabulary of elementary-school arithmetic."

Buswell and John selected one hundred terms from the total list of five hundred and devised a series of tests to enable them to study pupils' concepts of these common terms. Some of the tests were group tests while others were administered individually.



TABLE 1.—*Responses Given by 240 Pupils in Grades 1—VI to the Word "Count."*

(Buswell and John, page 50)

Response	Grades						Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Satisfactory responses:							
1. Gave sample of counting, as 1, 2, 3, etc., but no explanation .....	19	24	13	17	16	15	104
2. To see how many things there are .....	2		4	2	3	2	13
3. Means that you are numbering .....		1			2	2	5
4. To get the number of things if you want to know how many .....			1			1	2
5. Start with one and keep going .....						1	1
Doubtful responses:							
6. To count numbers (or things) .....	9	9	14	8	9	8	57
7. Count money (etc.) ...	8	6	4	3	2		23
Wrong responses:							
8. To add .....			3	2	5	3	13
9. To say numbers .....	1		1	3	1	3	9
10. To figure things out (or up) .....				1	1	1	3
11. To say a number right after another number ..				1	1	1	3
12. To find something out, you count up .....				2		1	3
13. To take numbers and names, like 1, 2, 3 .....						1	1
14. Putting things together in your head .....						1	1
15. To go up higher .....				1			1
16. Means you know your numbers .....	1						1
Omissions:							
17. No response							
<hr/>							
Summary:							
Satisfactory responses .....	21	25	18	19	21	21	125
Doubtful responses .....	17	15	18	11	11	8	80
Wrong responses .....	2	0	4	10	8	11	35
Omissions .....	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total .....	40	40	40	40	40	40	240

The former were given to fifteen hundred pupils in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. The difficulty of the terms was measured by the percentages of correct responses. Sample items from each of the tests will illustrate the nature.

To do a thing *once* means:

- ( ) 1. To do it often.
- ( ) 2. Never to do it.
- ( ) 3. To do it just one time.
- ( ) 4. To do it sometimes.

What would you say if you were asked to count these marks?

Write here .....

A dollar is the same as 100 .....

dimes      nickels      cents      quarters

The increase in the vocabulary of the pupils from grade to grade is shown by a comparison of the averages but there was a large amount of overlapping between grades. It is significant that there was considerable inconsistency in the ability of pupils to respond correctly to many terms that occurred in repeated tests. Although such pupils had some knowledge of the meanings of these words, their ideas were vague and they probably experienced considerable confusion in the use of such words. The individual tests permitted a more detailed study of pupils' ideas of the meanings of the common arithmetical words. A tabulation of the responses to one word is given in Table 1.

In all, only one-half of the pupils had an adequate idea of the meaning of this very common word. Many children who seem to be able to respond correctly to instruction to count are merely imitating others or saying words whose meaning they do not know. Others have a fragmentary idea of the meaning of the word. Some feature of the meaning of counting has taken the place of the whole meaning. Hence they associate counting with saying numbers, or "with going up higher" but the fundamental idea has not been grasped. Such incomplete meanings are probably as much a source of difficulty and confusion as no meaning at all. Many teachers assume that such a word as *count* is known by all children but these observations indicate that even the simplest terms may be misunderstood by more than a few children. The difficulty which such children experience in understanding instruction will be appreciated only when the extent of such failures is known. Similar results were forthcoming with the other words that were included in the tests. Table 2 presents the percentages of pupils who were able to respond correctly to some of the words of the individual tests.

Even these simple terms are not understood by all the pupils

TABLE 2.—*Number of Satisfactory Responses to Each of Several Words in the Individual Test.*

(Buswell and John, page 74)

Word	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
1. spend .....	29	30	33	36	34	31
2. number .....	28	34	32	38	32	31
3. enough .....	26	24	22	27	24	33
4. both .....	25	29	26	31	37	37
5. count .....	21	25	18	19	21	21
6. smaller .....	20	22	26	20	33	29
7. inch .....	12	7	18	18	27	28
8. another .....	11	3	6	11	16	17
9. worth .....	9	5	15	19	26	22
10. each .....	4	5	15	15	22	25
11. equal .....	3	13	20	27	33	30
12. subtract .....	3	11	37	33	35	32
13. average .....	1	1	2	6	26	26
14. quart .....	0	5	4	16	27	29
15. carry .....	0	3	17	18	26	20

(There were 40 pupils in each of the six grades)

and the difficulty of the learning process is augmented by inability to understand clearly the instruction that is provided.

The difficulties encountered by children in understanding the meanings of the words used in arithmetic are due to several conditions. Buswell and John have shown how abruptly technical terms are introduced into many texts. "In a recently published arithmetic textbook for the third grade occurs this assignment: 'Now estimate *reasonable answers* to the problems below.' Such an attempt to secure estimates of reasonable answers will undoubtedly be approved as good teaching procedure. However, the reactions of pupils to such an assignment will be conditioned by their understanding of the phrase *reasonable answers*. Forty third-grade children were tested individually for their knowledge of this phrase. Sixteen of the forty pupils had no idea of what a reasonable answer is. Seventeen pupils had substantially correct concepts of the phrase. Between these two extremes there were many varieties of misconceptions. One pupil thought that a reasonable answer is 'a cheap answer.' The meaning of the word *reasonable* as applied to family purchases had carried over to the arithmetic class. Another child said that a reasonable answer is not only a cheap answer 'but a very good one.' A third pupil thought that a reasonable answer is 'a big number.' Still another pupil thought that it is 'the whole answer to a problem.' Obvi-

ously, the responses of this sample group of forty pupils to the assignment given in the textbook to 'estimate reasonable answers to the problems' would have been extremely varied" (3, page 1).

Many words are not repeated in textbooks after their first use and there is no opportunity for reviewing the meanings of such words through encountering them in various contexts. The single occurrence of the word does no more than add a difficulty to the many already existing. The following table shows the number of times the word *acre* occurs in the first explanation of the word and in the ten following pages of the text (3, page 94).

<i>Frequency of Occurrence in the Ten Following Pages</i>							
<i>Text-book</i>	<i>Grade in Which Introduced</i>	<i>Frequency in First Explanation</i>	<i>Text</i>	<i>Directions</i>	<i>Problems</i>	<i>Headings</i>	<i>Total</i>
A	IV	3	0	2	12	0	17
B	IV	7	0	0	11	0	18
C	V	3	1	0	11	0	15
D	IV	2	1	0	13	0	16
E	IV	1	0	0	2	0	3
F	IV	7	3	0	10	0	20
G	V	4	4	0	1	0	9
H	IV	4	0	0	7	0	11
I	IV	3	0	0	3	0	6
J	IV	4	0	0	11	1	16
Total		38	9	2	81	1	131

Text E uses the word *acre* but once in introducing it and the word does not recur in the ten following pages except in two problems or in one problem twice. The learning difficulty is materially increased in this way. The entire burden of learning the meaning of this term is thereby shifted to the teacher and the pupil with practically no assistance being afforded by the text at all. Some of the more recently published textbooks have made a definite attempt to introduce new terms by building up the information necessary to assimilate the meaning of the new word. Unfortunately, however, many texts are in use which seem to presume that the only difficulties encountered in arithmetic are those that arise from the numbers themselves. The authors of such texts have apparently ignored the fact that the language of the explanations may be as much of a mystery to the children as is any process of dealing with numbers. The natural difficulty en-

countered in the acquisition of new concepts is therefore increased by the failure of the texts to provide an adequate setting for the introduction of new terms and sufficient use of such terms to insure their mastery after they have been introduced.

A second source of difficulty in the learning of terms in arithmetic is the failure of teachers to appreciate the burden which new terms impose on the learning process. Such terms are frequently introduced in the explanation of some computation procedure or technique of problem solving and the arithmetical processes are considered the sole source of the learning difficulty whereas the explanation that is offered is equally mysterious. Teachers should assure themselves that pupils have correct concepts of the terms employed before any attempt is made to use the terms in the description or explanation of any arithmetical procedure beyond those necessary to illustrate the meanings of the words. There is just as much necessity of teaching the language of arithmetic as there is of teaching the arithmetical processes for the latter cannot be understood without the former. There is, however, very general neglect of this essential element in the instruction. Some terms appear so simple to the adult mind that their difficulty for children is overlooked. Since the texts are frequently at fault, the teachers must assume the responsibility for adequate explanations of all terms that belong to the description of procedures in this subject. Tests similar to those used by Buswell and John may be constructed from the vocabulary of the text in use. They should extend backwards and forwards to reveal the mastery of words already in use and the pupils' acquaintance with those to be introduced. Diagnostic tests should be used in this connection to guide remedial instruction in the same way that such tests are employed in connection with computation or any other phase of problem solving. These considerations suggest the following precautions:

1. Teachers should mark in their books the first use of each word having some special connotation in arithmetic. It would be well to include all words representing quantities, relations, and processes in order that no word that may present difficulty be overlooked. They should then determine how often the word is used in the immediately following pages of the text.

2. Lists of these words should be compiled on the basis of the topics taught and the vocabulary of the textbook.

3. A background of experience should be cultivated to facilitate the assimilation of new meanings and the words that stand for them. Words should not be introduced by defining them but the experiences and the meaning should lead to a description that can be readily understood. The memorization of definitions, whether presented formally or arrived at inductively, is secondary to a functional knowledge of meaning. Many definitions are worse than useless since they define one unknown in terms of several other unknowns. It is probably advisable, therefore, to restrict the memorization of definitions as much as possible.

4. Tests of the vocabulary of arithmetic should be used as extensively as tests of any other phase of the subject. Pupils should mark the words that they missed on the test and review their meanings in the text. In view of the inadequacy of many texts, it will be necessary to teach again the meanings that are not fully known.

Terry has made a study of the procedures involved in the reading of problems in arithmetic (9 and 10). Introspective descriptions of the reading process and investigations of the eye-movements involved constituted the techniques of the study. His subjects were graduate students whose skill in reading far excelled that of the children in the grades. Hence, his observations reveal the reading methods of only mature individuals. Almost all of the subjects read each problem twice before undertaking the computation steps. The first reading was "to get the sense" of the problem or "to see what was to be done with the numbers." The re-reading dealt with some or all of the numbers in the problem and sometimes with a few of the accompanying words. "These re-readings of the numerals were for such purposes as 'verification' of the first reading, or the 'cultivation of assurance' before copying the figures on paper for computation. The subject with one or two exceptions was not aware that he habitually followed such a procedure until he began to make introspective observations of his habits." (9, page 3). The amount of information gleaned through the first reading varied greatly. Some subjects perceived the numerals simply as numerals and occasionally even this perception was incomplete, dealing with only the first or first two digits. At times the subjects noted the number of digits without attending to any one of them in particular. Some observed that the number was large or small but they were



not sure of its detailed features. As a rule, therefore, the first reading is fragmentary and the purpose is evidently to inform the reader of the general nature of the problem so that the second reading will be prepared for the crucial details in their relation to the method of solution. Some subjects did read the problem as a whole the first time but even they reverted to the numerals before attempting the computation.

Terry recommended that children be taught and encouraged to employ the method of partial first reading. There are adequate grounds for this recommendation. The perception of the details in a problem may interfere with the total meaning and as it will be necessary to read the numerals a second time anyway, the first reading can be devoted exclusively to those features of the problem that suggest the method of solution. The endeavor to read the whole problem with all its details the first time is conducive to mistakes. It would seem advisable, therefore, to teach children to devote their first reading of the problem to an identification of its type and the principal features. These will serve to recall the procedure to be used and the insight thus gained will guide the pupil to the numbers in the problem that he needs. This is not intended to imply that a stereotyped procedure is to be employed by all children with all problems but since there is a risk of encouraging very undesirable habits of procedure, it would be better to place some emphasis on this method of attacking problems. Many pupils have no adequate method of attempting to solve a problem. They become confused and ultimately depend on the size of the numbers or some other irrelevant feature of the problem to suggest the computation process to be employed. Cues such as single words or a phrase are employed to single out the procedures which they are otherwise unable to identify. Systematic instruction in the reading of problems together with planned teaching of the meanings of words should prove effective in overcoming many of the difficulties which beset problem work in arithmetic.

In spite of the evident importance of ability to read in problem solving in arithmetic, there are very few studies that deal with the results of systematic instruction in the reading of problems. The only study which employed appropriate methods of investigation is that of Monroe and Engelhart (6). While their experimental groups gained in problem solving ability following specific

instruction in the reading of problems, the gain was no greater than the improvement made by a control group. There is an evident need of evaluating various procedures in teaching pupils to read problems in arithmetic. The task of reading probably requires specific instruction for general training may not prove adequate. The vocabulary problem is only one of the several phases of the reading process. With normal facility in the general techniques of reading and specific training in the vocabulary of the subject, the pupils may develop sufficient capacity to read arithmetic problems easily and accurately but better results should be forthcoming when the reading of problems is recognized as an integral part of solving them and due emphasis is given the corresponding training.

## REFERENCES

1. Brooks, S. S., A Study of the Technical and Semi-technical Vocabulary of Arithmetic. Unpublished Master's thesis, Ohio State University, 1926.
2. Brooks, S. S., A Study of the Technical and Semi-technical Vocabulary of Arithmetic. *Educational Research Bulletin*, Ohio State University, 5, May 6, 1926, 219-222.
3. Buswell, G. T., and John, Lenore, The Vocabulary of Arithmetic. University of Chicago, *Supplementary Educational Monograph*, No. 38, 1931. Pp. 146.
4. Heightshoe, Agnes E., A Comparison of the Vocabularies of Arithmetics and Readers of the Second and Third Grades. Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1928. Pp. 148.
5. Hunt, Ava F., A Comparison of the Vocabularies of Third-Grade Textbooks in Arithmetic and Reading. Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1926. Pp. 88.
6. Monroe, Walter S., and Engelhart, Max D., The Effectiveness of Systematic Instruction in Reading Verbal Problems in Arithmetic. *Elem. School Jour.*, 33, January, 1933, 377-381.
7. Pressey, L. C., The Technical Vocabularies of the Public School Subjects: No. 3, Arithmetic. Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Company, 1924.
8. Pressey, L. C., and Elam, M. K., The Fundamental Vocabulary of Elementary-School Arithmetic. *Elem. School Jour.*, 33, September, 1932, 46-50.
9. Terry, Paul W., How Numerals are Read. University of Chicago, *Supplementary Educational Monograph*, No. 18, 1922. Pp. 109.
10. Terry, Paul W., The Reading Problem in Arithmetic. *Jour. of Educ. Psychol.*, 12, 1921, 365-377.

T. G. FORAN.

Department of Education,  
The Catholic University of America.

## EDUCATIONAL NOTES

### EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL JUSTICE<sup>1</sup>

The program for American Education Week which has been prepared for the Catholic schools of the United States is based on a document issued by the Bishops of the Administrative Committee of the National Catholic Welfare Conference last April under the title of "A Statement on the Present Crisis." This statement is a noteworthy analysis of the causes of the unhappy situation in which the world finds itself at the moment. It also indicates certain things that must be done, and undone, before we can hope for a lasting recovery and reestablish ourselves on a basis that will guarantee anything of security and happiness for the masses of mankind.

It seemed good to us to seize the opportunity of Education Week to encourage the teachers and children in our schools, as well as the Catholic public at large, to study more deeply and in greater detail the statement of the Bishops. It was issued not as an idle gesture or for purposes purely academic. It was aimed to inspire action, to suggest immediate practical steps that must be taken in the direction of the Church's perennial goal—"to restore all things in Christ." Among other things, as a consequence, it is a challenge to Catholic education, to Catholic parents and Catholic teachers, a challenge to take stock of themselves in order to discover whether or not they are transmitting to the children, undiluted by compromise and opportunism, a sound, social education based on the principles of the Gospels.

We hear much these days about the obligation of the nation to support its schools even though it is sorely beset by the depression, and it is well that we do, for the next generation will need all the intelligence and character it can muster if it is going to make any headway solving the myriad problems that we in our stupidity have created for it. But we are not hearing enough about the obligation of the schools to support the nation. We might welcome a little more evidence that our schools, whether

---

<sup>1</sup> Radio Address by Rev. Dr. George Johnson, Secretary General, National Catholic Educational Association and Associate Professor of Education, The Catholic University of America, in connection with American Education Week program, given from National Education Association headquarters, Washington, D. C., November 8, 1933.

public or private, are beginning to realize that they are not entirely blameless for what has happened.

The American schools, of course, have been forced to bear a terrific burden. Responsibilities have been shifted upon them, which, in a normal social order, would have been borne by other agencies. But the social order in which we have been living has not been normal; on the contrary, it has been very abnormal. We have given full, free rein to the development of modern industry and have stood by complacently whilst it threw one fundamental institution after another off balance and distorted and disrupted every basic human relationship. As other educational agencies, particularly the home, have been deprived of their effectiveness, the school has been forced to come to the rescue. By expanding its curricula and multiplying its activities it has been applying palliative poultices to the wounds of a body politic, crushed and tortured by the Juggernaut sometimes referred to as Industrial Progress.

Under the circumstances, it was but natural that the schools should lose sight of certain blessed simplicities that are of the very essence of true education. They have put their faith in expansion and much spending of money. As a matter of fact, they have made costliness the index of educational progress. They have succeeded greatly; but they have likewise failed greatly. As a nation, thanks to our schools, if you please, we are resourceful, energetic, creative, dynamic; yet at the same time, and shall we also say, thanks to our schools, we have been exhibiting of late a woful ignorance of fundamental principles of justice and morality, a strange obtuseness to all moral values. Little wonder that there has been created in the minds of some people a doubt as to our capacity to maintain much longer the institutions of democracy, since, after all, democracy presupposes mutual trust and trustworthiness.

I read with some interest, the other day, a statement made by Eamon De Valera, President of the Irish Free State, in the course of an address welcoming the delegates to the Dublin Conference of the World Federation of Educational Associations last June. He said, "*Material teachings are useless, if they fail to teach the young people to know and conform to the principles that material things and forces subserve.*" These words of President De Valera deserve pondering. Volume after volume has been written of

late on education for change, education in a changing civilization, and kindred topics. They serve a good purpose. After all, an effective school cannot be maintained in a vacuum, and boys and girls have a right to ask that their teachers prepare them to live in the world of reality.

But there are some things that never change, certain principles of thought and action that are always valid, no matter what the shift in circumstances. There has been too much loose talking about new moralities and new ethics, too much ignorant assumption that because times change the basis of right and wrong changes. There is a God in Heaven and we are His creatures. To do His Will is the purpose of our existence. His Law is eternal. All things, both human and material, were made to subserve that Law and the principles it implies. If our boys and girls are not taught to know the Will of God and to conform their lives to it, they must inevitably develop into men and women who are a source of danger to any social order in which they live.

St. Thomas Aquinas defines religion as "the virtue by which man renders to God the worship and reverence that is His by right." That right is based on the fact that as creatures we belong to God. The moment we lose sight of this fact, we begin to assume that we belong to ourselves, and weigh the demands which society makes upon us in the balance of self-love.

The result, to quote the Bishops' statement, is Individualism, a philosophy of life "which has ruled governments, groups and individuals for the past three hundred years, which has not taken as its guide the moral law, which has not considered the rights of man, which has defended and defends today, unrestrained individual economic freedom, which permits individuals, corporations and nations to accumulate as much wealth as they can, and to use such accumulated wealth as they see fit, which has denied, and denies, in reality, the oneness and solidarity of mankind."

The false individualism thus described by the Bishops has held sway long enough. It has brought the world to the brink of chaos, and it must be dethroned. It can be dethroned by the mighty hand of a dictator, but that is not the American way. The American way is education. It takes longer, but it preserves us from the tragedy of exchanging one brand of slavery for another. But the education we need is the education which is traditionally American, and that is education rooted and founded in religion.



The kind of education we need is the kind the framers of the Northwest Ordinance had in mind when in 1787 they set aside public lands for the support of schools—schools, which they said must be forever encouraged, because religion and morality, as well as knowledge, are necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind.

The nation owes it to the schools to see that they pass through the depression unharmed in any vital way; the schools owe it to the nation to take an account of their stewardship and to discover wherein by omission or commission they have contributed to the breakdown. The schools owe it to themselves to define their field, to refuse to saddle themselves with responsibilities that by nature do not belong to them, and thus to force a rehabilitation of the other educational agencies which operate in a normal social order. They owe it to themselves to labor toward that simplification of program which will be effected in the degree that they understand more fully the intellectual and moral foundations upon which alone a sound educational structure can be reared.

GORGAS PRIZE ESSAY <sup>1</sup>

*The Problem of the Mosquito and Other Insect Life in Relation to Sanitation, Health and Industry*

Men slowly dying by famine, by fever and disease; the whole earth a veritable desert; the heavens blackened by the insect horde; the entire world driven mad by its drone—this would undoubtedly be the condition of the world at some time in the future, if a Manson, a Gorgas, a Ross, or a Finlay would not occasionally rise above the common order of men to lead science on in its constant warfare against its winged foe. Thanks to the genius of these captains of science, humanity is more than holding its own against the onslaught of insect pests.

In 1898, Sir Ronald Ross achieved the epoch-making discovery that the malarial parasite is transmitted through the agency of the mosquito. In 1901, the Walter Reed Board of the American army, acting upon the suggestion of Dr. Carlos Finlay twenty years before, proved that yellow fever was transmitted from man

<sup>1</sup> By Joseph S. Brendler, Messmer Catholic High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. Awarded first prize in the national essay contest conducted by the Gorgas Memorial Institute.



to man by certain kinds of infected mosquitoes. These discoveries proved to be the turning point in tropical sanitation. William Crawford Gorgas, putting these findings to work, banished yellow fever from Havana and made possible the construction of the Panama Canal, which for centuries had been unsuccessful because malaria and yellow fever had claimed more than three hundred out of every thousand workers.

Since it has been proved time and again that mosquitoes cannot breed unless they have water in which to do so, it becomes quite obvious that if all open water is removed or made unfit for breeding the mosquito must soon disappear from the locality. This is accomplished by draining the water off either through ditches or sub-soil drains. If, however, the nature of the place makes it impossible to draw off the water, the place should either be filled in or oil be applied to the surface of the water to prevent the larvae from breathing.

A close study of the aquatic environment and favorable breeding conditions of the mosquito reveals the fact that mosquitoes select only certain types of water for breeding. This can be explained by the fact that certain waters do not provide suitable feeding conditions, or that certain algae or plant growths on the surface of the stream prevent the larvae from breathing. These conditions suggest a very effective means of natural mosquito control through the use of carnivorous and surface-covering plants. This method becomes especially useful in the care of park lagoons and beauty spots, where the application of oil becomes undesirable. Duckweeds are especially practical because of their close packing on the surface.

In speaking of the natural destruction of mosquito larvae it might not be out of place to mention the fact that a great number may be destroyed by stocking fountain basins and artificial ponds with such natural enemies of the mosquito as goldfish, top minnows, bullhead minnows, killfish, and sticklebacks.

Since mosquitoes will be found breeding much more frequently in artificial collections of water than in natural pools, it becomes important that such common breeding places as rain barrels, tubs, cisterns, clogged roof gutters, cesspools, and unused toilets—any receptacle that can hold water long enough to allow mosquitoes to breed—be taken care of by complete removal or screening with fine mesh wire.

When one realizes that the common house fly breeds in manure and filth, that it flies from the cesspool and garbage can to the kitchen and baby's crib, one does not wonder at the natural aversion with which this filthy insect is regarded everywhere. It is the bearer of typhoid fever and tuberculosis germs. To prevent flies from breeding, all refuse should be taken care of. The farmer will encounter some difficulty in keeping his barnyard fly-proof because no practical method has yet been found which will destroy the larvae in manure without injuring the manure as fertilizer. To prevent the fly from doing any serious harm, it should be kept from entering the home by the use of screens. Consideration of the very rapid rate of reproduction should give added importance to the slogan, "Swat the fly."

Africa is today only sparsely populated because of sleeping sickness spread by the tsetse fly. The life cycle of this insect can be broken by killing off all big game, since this is practically the only source from which it obtains its disease germs.

The flea has long been known to be the vector of a dreaded disease, the bubonic plague, which several centuries ago almost wiped out entire cities. Through increased sanitation this terror has been for the most part eliminated.

Man has come to know the louse as the carrier of typhus and trench fevers, and the stable fly as the vector of infantile paralysis. The tick is the carrier of the causative organisms of tularemia, of the eastern type of Rocky Mountain spotted fever, and relapsing fevers. Japanese river fever is attributed to the harvest mite, and leprosy to the agency of the mosquitoes, flies, fleas, and lice. Other insect agents of disease are cockroaches, cellar beetles, ants, fish-insect, moths, booklice, and food mites.

The number of human lives sacrificed to insect-borne disease and the immense loss of time and labor due to these winged destroyers are indeed astounding. However, some idea of the appalling situation with which science is confronted in dealing with insects can be gained by attempting to find an industry not affected in some way or other by the pillage of insect life. When one realizes the fact that, according to Professor D. M. DeLong of the Ohio State University, "no plant or animal has yet been found which is absolutely free from the attacks of insects," one can imagine the immense loss, due to insects, sustained by the

farmer. Then it no longer is surprising to hear that insects destroy from one-tenth to one-fifth of all our crops, or that the loss sustained by the farmer alone is sufficient to cover our national deficit.

We might consider briefly some of the more important industries affected by insect pests. The influence of insects in the animal industry is tremendous. The insect attacking cattle not only destroys the hide of the cattle but also impairs the quality of the meat, sometimes making it unfit for use. All the farmers' domestic animals—for example, horses, sheep, hogs, and poultry—are afflicted with insect parasites.

All the fruit-growing industries, as well as the canning and dried fruit industries, are affected both during the growing season and during storage. Speaking of storage, it might not be out of place to mention the losses due to insect pests in stored grain. According to the U. S. Department of Agriculture Farmers' Bulletin, number 1483, a recent outbreak of the Angoumois grain moth cost the State of Pennsylvania a sum of three million dollars. In 1912 the havoc wrought by the weevils to the corn crops of Alabama amounted to four million dollars. This loss, although tremendous, was not unusual for the average loss of southern corn through insect raids is from 2 to 5 per cent.

It may seem unusual that insects should prey upon the tobacco leaf, thereby causing serious damage, because a very toxic plant poison is made from this leaf; nevertheless, this is the case.

The lumber industry has long been confronted with the problem of finding preventive and control measures against the ravages of insect pests on unseasoned lumber. The class of insects chiefly responsible for this damage is the wood-borer. Serious injury can be prevented by the cutting of logs in October and November, during which time the beetle is inactive, and by treatment with certain preventive and remedial chemicals. In Europe and America, the oak and other forest trees suffer greatly from the various types of moths.

Insects are gnawing at the very foundation of industry in the South by destroying its two principal crops. The corn-borer and the leaf hopper destroy a huge portion of its sugar cane, while the boll-weevil causes an annual loss of three hundred million dollars to its cotton crop.

Housekeeping, America's greatest industry, offers a very fruit-

ful field to our devastating enemy, the insect, with its food products, its carpets, its rugs, and its woolens.

It seems that certain insects have taken compassion upon harassed humanity and have turned upon their comrades in relentless civil war. Among the more important insect friends of man are the aslids, which destroy harmful beetles; the dragon fly, which preys upon mosquitoes; the green lacewing, which destroys aphids; caterpillars, butterflies, moths, and corn-borers are the victims of the tachinid fly; and all members of the parasitic group of Hymenoptera prey upon a great amount of insect life.

Chemical warfare and sanitation—these are the solution to the problem of insect extermination. However, humanity must still be educated to a point where it will realize the seriousness of this problem. The Gorgas Memorial Institute has accomplished much toward this end.

#### SURVEY OF THE FIELD

Earnest support of President Roosevelt's efforts for national recovery is bespoken in a statement issued by the Administrative Committee of the National Catholic Welfare Conference November 16. Asserting that the President "stands in need of friendly cooperation and helpful advice and he has not shut himself off in sullen isolation from his fellow-citizens to work out his problems alone," the statement declares that "the program he is seeking to carry out is the best he could devise, it is the best Congress could construct, and any attempt to make partisan profit out of the present misery and distress is a crime against fair-dealing and humanity." That the President will, at times, make mistakes, and that those he has called to his assistance will sometimes be in error, is to be expected, "but a good augury for the future is to be found in the fact that, so far, he has been so often right in the midst of so many possibilities for error," the statement declares. "We, ourselves," it concludes, "have not escaped the effects of the general calamity. Our schools are in many places crippled, the demands for relief have increased a hundred fold, but we must go on and rededicate ourselves to the cause of education, of preaching and of religion, to every function of the sacred ministry that promotes the salvation of souls, and in this way we shall aid most effectively in the restoration and

reconstruction of our country." . . . A continuing committee of prelates whose Sees are in Eastern, Western and intermediate sections of the United States has been appointed by the Administrative Committee of the National Catholic Welfare Conference to study, observe and report back to that body on the evils of immorality in motion pictures. This action was announced in the following statement issued November 16. "The Administrative Committee, National Catholic Welfare Conference, in its session this afternoon appointed a special continuing committee of members of the American Hierarchy to act against the growing abuses and licentiousness of the Moving Picture Industry. "The Committee further took action to gain the cooperation of the Bishops in Europe to curb the growing moral menace of the lurid American movie." This action of the Administrative Committee was indorsed by the General Meeting of the Bishops of the United States held at the Catholic University of America, November 15 and 16, and attended by three Cardinals, ten Archbishops and seventy Bishops. The General Meeting of the Bishops considered the question of motion pictures of such seriousness as to make it a matter of exhaustive discussion at one of its sessions. The continuing committee is composed of the Most Rev. John T. McNicholas, O.P., Archbishop of Cincinnati; the Most Rev. John J. Cantwell, Bishop of Los Angeles and San Diego; the Most Rev. Hugh C. Boyle, Bishop of Pittsburgh; and the Most Rev. John F. Noll, Bishop of Fort Wayne. . . . Georgetown University initiated a season of special programs commemorative of the tercentenary of the founding of Maryland, on November 23. The observances will continue through March 25, 1934, which is celebrated at Georgetown as Founders' Day. With the Apostolic Delegate to the United States, His Excellency the Most Rev. Amleto Giovanni Cicognani, as the guest of honor, the first of the tercentenary exercises was in commemoration of Father Andrew White and his Jesuit companions, who set sail from the Isle of Wight, November 22 and 23, 1634, arriving in Maryland, March 25, 1634. That date marks the founding of the Maryland Colony, at St. Mary's City, as a land of sanctuary. Preceding the exercises, the Apostolic Delegate officiated at the blessing of the White-Gravenor Building, the new science hall at the college. The corner-stone of this building was laid early in the year, and it was occupied for the first time this Fall. From time to time



during the academic year, Georgetown University will observe, in appropriate fashion, important events of its earliest history and the religious life of the Maryland Colony. One of these early events will be a reception in honor of the Most Rev. James H. Ryan, newly ordained Bishop of Modra and rector of the Catholic University of America. . . . A pageant for Catholic schools, entitled "Maryland," has been written by the Rev. Henry S. Spalding, S.J., and published by the George A. Pflaum Company, Dayton, Ohio. The pageant comprises four acts. The first is an allegorical scene, while the other three depict the history of the Maryland Colony and the establishment of religious liberty. The tercentenary program began with the unveiling of a commemorative tablet at Cowes, England, on November 22, and a celebration in Baltimore. . . . A bill making it unlawful for any authorities to inquire into the religious affiliation of any applicant for a position as teacher has been signed by Governor Miriam A. Ferguson of Texas. . . . Dr. Charles C. Conroy, professor of Church History at Los Angeles College, the Junior Seminary, has been made a fellow of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. A member of several scientific and astronomical associations, Dr. Conroy was also editor of *The Tidings*, Catholic paper, for many years. He was made a Knight of the Holy Sepulchre in 1926. . . . A proposal made by the Very Rev. Peter M. H. Wynhoven, editor-in-chief of *Catholic Action of the South*, that relief for parochial schools of Louisiana be provided through issuance of State warrants of tuition payment to parents of educable children, leaving the selection of the school to the parents, is constitutional, it is asserted in an article in a recent number of the diocesan newspaper. The plan was suggested in an article by Father Wynhoven in the official Archdiocesan organ. In it he pointed out that unless the parochial schools received State aid they may be forced to close, with a consequent additional burden on the taxpayers. In New Orleans alone, he pointed out, this would mean the expenditure of \$7,000,000 for additional building to accommodate the 22,614 Catholic school children, plus \$756,000 annually for salaries for 600 additional teachers. The latest article states that prominent local attorneys have held constitutional the proposal that the State issue warrants to parents of educable children. It is pointed out that there would be no direct contribution to sectarian or religious



institutions. "Funds," it was explained, "would be given to the parents for the education of their children and the choice of the school left to the parents themselves. Thus the State fulfills its obligation of providing for the education of children and parents can exercise their right of selection of a school." . . . "Church-related schools" are in the fullest sense public and should be entitled to the advance of funds from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, it was declared at the recent annual conference of the American Association of Colleges. Dr. Robert L. Kelly, a non-Catholic, executive secretary of the association, told the meeting the distinction made between public and private schools is entirely erroneous. The ordinary distinction, he said, is that a "public" school is one that receives State aid and a "private" school one that operates without assistance. The only private schools, he pointed out, are those that are operated for profit. The growing conviction among non-Catholic educators that religion plays an indispensable part in education was brought to the fore at a session devoted to the topic, "Christian Education Today." Edmund D. Soper, of Ohio Wesleyan University, president of the association, said the modern attitude on the separation of religion and education is all wrong and praised the large number of Americans who insist that there must be a joining of the two. Catholics and Lutherans, he reminded, have always maintained this principle in theory and practice. . . . Three colored seminarians of St. Augustine's Seminary, Bay St. Louis, Miss., received the subdeaconate from the Most Rev. Richard O. Gerow, Bishop of Natchez, October 29. His Excellency celebrated the Mass, in the course of which he conferred the order upon the three seminarians. After fourteen years of work these seminarians are the first fruits. The ordinations to Deaconate were conferred upon the same seminarians by Bishop Gerow on November 30. They will be ordained to the priesthood next spring. . . . Architectural students of the Catholic University of America captured the two first prizes in the nation-wide art competition conducted by *Societe des Architectures Diplomes par le Gouvernement*. Vernon F. Duckett and Socrates Stathes, both of Washington, were announced the winners of the first and second prizes respectively by the officials of the contest. . . . Faced with a desperate financial situation, the authorities of St. Fidelis Seminary, Herman, Pa., have decided upon a temporary suspension of

classes during which the students will return to their homes and seek to rally their relatives and friends in aid of the institution. The students will seek to raise funds necessary to tide matters over till the Christmas holidays. At present 162 boys and young men are pursuing studies at St. Fidelis Seminary, which offers a complete state-accredited high school course and two years of college work. All of these students are candidates for the priesthood, and more than half of them are poor students who are unable to pay either board or tuition. The students have begun a campaign of prayer during which special novenas of prayers and Masses will be offered in honor of St. Anthony, patron of their chapel. The Forty Hours' Devotion were held in the Seminary chapel November 1 to 3, and immediately after this the students returned to their homes to stimulate interest in the institution's plight. . . . The Federal Emergency Administration has authorized State emergency relief administrations to institute a program of child feeding in the schools for the children of families now on relief lists who are attending school, where examination indicates under-feeding and malnutrition. The authorization limits the program to the children of families on the relief lists and still further limits it to one meal a day. The child-feeding program is to be entirely under the direction of the local emergency relief committees, or their authorized agents, but these groups are urged not to relax their efforts to provide in the homes sufficient nourishing food, especially milk, so that preschool, as well as school children, may be properly fed. With probably 6,000,000 children in the homes of the unemployed now on relief lists, and with the difficulty of providing adequate and proper food for children in the homes, it is sought to establish the fullest possible safeguards against malnutrition among children.

## REVIEWS AND NOTICES

**Dictionary of American Biography.** Under the auspices of the American Council of Learned Societies. Edited by Dumas Malone. Vol. X. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1933. Pp. x+617. Price, \$12.50.

The present volume of the *DAB* covers the names "Jasper" to "Larkin." It contains 62 of the Jones family, 54 Johnsons, 23 Johnstons, and 31 sketches of the King group. The longest contribution yet to appear in the *Dictionary* is the editor's carefully prepared life of Thomas Jefferson (18 pp.), outstanding among many excellent sketches.

This volume presents the usual variety of characters representative of every profession and endeavor. There are biographies of John Jay, of his grandson of the same name who "assailed the Roman Catholic Church for its attempts 'to overthrow our common school system, to tax the people for Romish schools where children will be bent like the twig, moulded in the confessional, educated as subjects of the Pope, owing to him their chief allegiance'"; of Joseph Jefferson, Allen Johnson, first editor of the *Dictionary*, Andrew Johnson, Byron Johnson, American League president, John Paul Jones, Keeley who founded the Keeley Institute, Keene the turfman, B. F. Keith, theater owner, Fanny Kemble the actress, Amos Kendall, Chancellor James Kent, Francis Scott Key, Captain Kidd, Gen. Rufus King, long minister to the Papal States, Senator La Follette, Robert Lansing, and others of equal interest.

Catholic representation is unusually full and varied in the present volume; over forty names were counted whose Catholic affiliation is noted in the sketch of each or is otherwise known. Among them are Blessed Isaac Jogues, Richard Malcolm Johnston, Jolliet, Joubert de la Muraille, Sulpician founder of the Oblate Sisters of Providence; Sister Julia McGroarty, foundress of Trinity College; Bishop Frederic Katzer of Green Bay, Governor Kavanagh of Maine; Bishop James J. Keane of Cheyenne; Archbishop Keane, first rector of the Catholic University; Denis Kearney, labor agitator; James D. Kelley; Aloysius O. Kelly, physician and teacher; Eugene Kelly, banker, treasurer of the Catholic University, and, although it is not stated, consul gen-

eral of the Papal States; John Kelly, politician; "Mike" Kelly, "the \$10,000 beauty"; Myra Kelly; Patrick J. Kenedy, the publisher; Senator Kenna; Archbishops F.P. Kenrick and his brother, Peter R.; Richard C. Kerens; Francis Kernan, lawyer and politician; Edward L. Keyes, surgeon; Joyce Kilmer; Gen. Hugh Kilpatrick; Fr. Kino; John Kirchmayer, wood-carver; Mgr. Joseph Kirlin; Bruno O. Klein, organist and composer of Masses; A. Leo Knott, Maryland lawyer and politician; Anthony Kohlmann, S.J.; John Lafarge; Thomy Lafon, negro philanthropist; Father Louis A. Lambert; Father Andrew Lambing; Bishop Lamy; Admiral Pierre Landais; and Father John Larkin, educator. There is also James "Frank" Keenan, actor, who was interested in the Young Men's Catholic Association of Boston, but who married a third wife while his second was still living.

The "J's" and "K's" were expected to offer many "Catholic" candidates to the *Dictionary*. Of ecclesiastics and laymen prominent in Catholic action, it is presumed that the above list offers the selections of its Catholic advisers. Appreciating the demands for space, especially as the project reaches its halfway mark with the fruitful letters, M, P, R, S, and W still ahead, one nevertheless can point to omissions of a few whose contributions to American life at least match those of some who have been chosen. An organizer of a new diocese, such as Bishop Juncker, first bishop of Alton, must have left a career worthy of notice. The labors of Bishop Junger, of Archbishop John Kain of St. Louis, of Count Ferdinand Korschak, visitor of the California Jesuit missions, of Bishop Krautbauer of Green Bay, the stormy career of Bishop La Hailandière of Indianapolis, and the work of Patrick Keely, architect of 500 churches, including the cathedrals of Chicago, Boston, Hartford, and Providence, and the recipient of the Laetare medal—all deserved to be perpetuated in this volume.

LEO F. STOCK.

The Department of History

The Catholic University of America.

---

**An Introduction to Liturgical Latin**, by A. M. Scarre. Boston: Bruce Humphries, Inc., St. Dominic's Press, 1933. Pp. 208.

This book is intended to give its users a sufficient knowledge of Latin to enable them to read the liturgy, especially the Divine Office. The grammatical forms and syntax are presented on the

basis of the usages found in the liturgy, and the reading exercises are taken for the most part directly from liturgical texts. The work is justified on the grounds that to get a fair reading knowledge of liturgical Latin it is not necessary to begin with classical Latin, but that this end may be secured more easily and quickly by learning liturgical Latin through liturgical Latin.

In my opinion it would be eminently desirable that all who read the liturgy should know the Latin of every period very well, for a historical knowledge of a language gives deeper understanding. But since actually it is impossible for a large number of persons to get such a comprehensive knowledge of Latin, it is surely to be desired that they learn sufficient Latin at least to read the liturgy, if nothing else. It is to meet the needs of this group, not of those who intend to give considerable time to a systematic study of the Latin language and literature, that the book under review has been written.

The author has done his work well. His presentation of the grammatical forms and syntax of liturgical Latin is brief, clear, but on the whole adequate, and his selections for reading are so generous that users of the book will not only get practice in reading, but will also become acquainted with many gems in the liturgy itself. After examining the book, I feel that I may say without hesitation that it is the best of the elementary grammars designed to give English speaking students a reading knowledge of the liturgy that have so far appeared. While the little work is obviously intended for instructing religious in the elements of liturgical Latin, and is warmly recommended for this purpose by the Master General of the Dominicans in his letter of approbation, it might well find good use among lay students in our high schools and colleges, who, whether they are taking the ordinary courses in classical Latin or not, should be strongly encouraged, if not required, to obtain some familiarity with the language of the liturgy and thus be led to have a deeper and more intelligent interest in the beauties of their religion and culture.

With a view to improving the effectiveness of this valuable manual, I should like to add here a few corrections and suggestions. A short section on Latin pronunciation would be a useful addition to the Introduction. Page 3 and *passim*: In the para-

digms a separate place is reserved for the vocative, although with few exceptions the vocative corresponds to the nominative. Space could be saved and the paradigms amplified by indicating the nominative and vocative as one form, except in the few instances where they show different forms. Page 19: In the vocabulary it would be better to write *excelsa*, -orum, not *excelsum*, as the word is commonly in the plural in liturgical Latin. Page 21: The author speaks of the third conjugation as the consonant conjugation. Since he speaks of the *a*-conjugation, etc., it would certainly be better to call the third conjugation the *ê*-(short-e) conjugation. Page 26: -cum and -que are discussed as enclitics, but it should be added that *cum* in this usage is a preposition and governs the ablative case. Page 31: It is stated that *miserere* is followed by the genitive. It should be added that in liturgical Latin this word frequently is followed by the dative. Page 63: In the paradigm of the adjective *tristis*, the dative and ablative singular are given as *tristi*. It should be noted that the ablative often ends in -e in such words. Page 70: It is stated that "after the comparative is found . . . or (b) *quam*, *super*, followed by the same case as the word or words compared." This is not true of *super*, which is a preposition and governs the accusative in this usage. Page 130: The author says: "*amatus sum* or *amatus fui*, 'I was loved,' 'I have been loved' (not 'I am loved,' which is *amor*)." This is misleading. *Amor* can mean "I am loved," but ordinarily means "I am being loved," while *amatus sum* sometimes really has the meaning "I am loved." In this connection one should recall the common scriptural phrase *scriptum est*, "it is written." Page 137: *pascor* . . . (imper. *pasce*). This is confusing. It should be noted that in liturgical Latin an active verb *pasco* is also in use, hence the imper. *pasce*. Page 140: *semi-deponenet*: read "semi-deponent." Page 147 (end): "the assimilation of the preposition in *posum*" . . . this is incorrect. *Possum* is made up, not of a preposition plus *sum*, but of the adjective *potis* plus *sum*. Pages 176-177: the use of *quod*, *quia*, and *quoniam* in place of the classical accusative and infinitive construction after verbs of saying, knowing, etc., should be treated under the same head. This usage, it is true, was influenced by Greek, but it had an independent origin in Latin. Page 194: "There is finally an im-



personal use of the gerund to show obligation." Read "gerundive" in place of "gerund."

MARTIN R. P. MCGUIRE.

Department of Greek and Latin,  
The Catholic University of America.

---

**History of Christian Education**, by Pierre J. Marique, Ph.D.,  
Pd.D. New York: Fordham University Press.

This volume, the third of the author's series on the History of Christian Education, is a survey of education extending over a period of approximately two hundred years, from the middle of the eighteenth century to the present time. The three great revolutions of the eighteenth century are pivotal events in the modern era around which revolve a century and a half of educational trends and facts in their relation to western thought and the facts of western history.

The intellectual revolution which is often referred to as the Enlightenment; the political revolution which hoped to substitute the government of the many for that of the few; the industrial revolution which was to replace handwork by machine—this three-fold revolution of the eighteenth century deeply affected the life and educational trends of western nations.

The Enlightenment aimed at wrecking the Church and dechristianizing the population. In Rousseau was found the champion and voice as it extended to the masses of the people. Education according to nature was the slogan of the day. That education is a work of nature is true, but not in the sense that naturalism would have it. As the author states, education is and always will remain a work of authority.

The French Revolution foreshadowed the collapse of divine-right monarchy and of feudal privilege. A new Europe was in the process of creation. Nations were becoming acutely self-conscious. The triumph of the ideas of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity, however, was not the outcome of a revolutionary wave in politics, but rather was determined by a great industrial revolution—a revolution which made democracy the dominant ideal in Europe, which stimulated science, and which created grave problems in domestic affairs and in international relations from which we are suffering today.

In the light of the far-reaching influence exerted by these three great revolutions, the author interprets the consequences for education in general and particularly for the school.

The third volume of Dr. Marique's historical series will prove serviceable to the student of educational history, but the work would serve a greater purpose if the presentation of educational thought and development in the modern era were more comprehensive. Mention is noticeably lacking of a number of educational worthies of the period under treatment both of Europe and of America whose Catholic educational ideas would be enlightening. The papal encyclicals of recent years would also furnish valuable sources of Catholic educational thought in the survey of the modern period.

FRANK P. CASSIDY.

Department of Education,  
The Catholic University of America.

---

**St. Ignatius and the Ratio Studiorum.** Ed. by Edward A. Fitzpatrick. Translations by Mary Helen Mayer and A. R. Ball. McGraw-Hill Education Classics; Edward H. Reisner, General Editor. 275 pp. Price, \$2.00.

The contents of this book consist of about 40 pages of introduction and comment by Dean Fitzpatrick, about 70 pages of excerpts from the *Constitutions* of the Society of Jesus, and about 150 pages of the text of the *Ratio* of 1599. We have long needed some book on this subject, but we could well do without the present publication. The bare intention of the editor is deserving of praise and the mere labor of the translators calls for some recognition; but the product, at best, is mediocre. The introduction on St. Ignatius, although correct enough, is hardly more than a perfunctory recital. Written in an indifferent style, with intermittent attempts at force and fervor, it is spiritless and flat. But there is worse to come! The translations are ruinous to the reputation of the *Ratio* and the *Constitutions*. The Latin text may be lacking in classical elegance, but it is fluent and clear. If the assertion be made that the translation is "faithful," the reply is that it is not even slavish. And why the sad succession of interminable sentences? There is no sin in long sentences as such. Indeed, Cicero is a saint in this respect and Newman is blessed, at least. But, if long sentences cannot be managed without sacrificing logic and syntax, they should not be employed.

Not even the primeval principles of ingrain grammar completely escape violation.

The whole performance is a reflection upon a group who have been in the field of education the standard-bearers of style, the champions of perfect speech and the leading advocates of mental discipline. It is time that we ceased being solicitous about issuing just another book, for the sake of a book. Nothing less than approximate excellence should ever satisfy us; then perhaps we should improve our poor renown for scholarship.

CHARLES N. LISCHKA.

---

### Books Received

#### *Educational*

Charters, W. W.: *Motion Pictures and Youth*. A Summary. The Payne Fund Studies. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933. Pp. vii+102. Price, \$1.50.

Dysinger, Wendell S. and Ruckmick, Christian A.: *The Emotional Responses of Children to the Motion Picture Situation*. The Payne Fund Studies. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933. Pp. xiii+285. Price, \$2.00.

Franciscan Educational Conference: *Report of the Fifteenth Annual Meeting*, Marathon, Wisconsin, June 30, July 1st, 2nd, 1933. Washington, D. C.: Office of the Secretary, Capuchin College, Pp. xxxvii+177.

Malone, Dumas: *Dictionary of American Biography*. Volume XII. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. x+647. Price, \$12.50.

Pressey, S. L.: *Psychology and the New Education*. New York: Harper and Brothers. Pp. xxxi+594. Price, \$2.25.

*Report of the Kentucky Educational Commission*. Frankfort, Ky.: State Department of Education. Pp. xxviii+324.

Schumacher, Rt. Rev. Msgr. M. A., M.A.: *How to Teach the Catechism*. Volume I, Grades I, II, and III. New York: Benziger Brothers. Pp. vii+228. Price, \$2.00.

*Seven Hundred Years*. An Anthology of Verse by The Servite Scholastics to Commemorate The Septuacentennial Celebration of The Order of Servants of Mary. Edited by Joseph M. Vosburgh, O.S.M. Granville, Wis.: The Servite Fathers, Mount Saint Philip Monastery, 1933. Pp. viii+56. Price, \$1.00.

Sheed, F. J.: *A Map of Life*. New York: Sheed and Ward, 63 Fifth Avenue. Pp. 150. Price, \$1.25.

Shepherd, Edith E. and Others: *English Instruction in the University High School*. Chicago: The University of Chicago. Pp. ix+176. Price, \$1.50.

*The Rockefeller Foundation, Annual Report, 1932*. New York: The Rockefeller Foundation, 49 West 49th Street. Pp. 455.

Williams, Frankwood E., M.D., Editor: *Proceedings of the First International Congress on Mental Hygiene*. Volumes One and Two. New York: The International Committee for Mental Hygiene, Inc., 450 Seventh Avenue. Pp. 803; 840.

Woelfel, Norman: *Molders of the American Mind*. A Critical Review of the Social Attitudes of Seventeen Leaders in American Education. New York: Columbia University Press. Pp. xii+304. Price, \$3.00.

#### Textbooks

Berry, Gertrude: *The Child and the Church*. A Book About Our Lord and His Church for His Very Little Ones. New York: Benziger Brothers. Pp. 32.

Glenn, Rev. Paul J., Ph.D., S.T.D.: *Criteriology*. A Class Manual in Major Logic. St. Louis, Mo.: B. Herder Book Company. Pp. xi+261. Price, \$1.75.

Grandgent, C. H., Editor: *La Divina Commedia di Dante Alighieri*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company. Pp. xlii+1003. Price, \$3.60.

Kelly, William A., Ph.D.: *Educational Psychology*. Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Company. Pp. xix+501. Price, \$2.40.

Ward, Justine: *Music First Year*. Washington, D. C.: The Catholic Education Press. Pp. 255. Price, \$1.50.

#### Pamphlets

Apollinaris, Father, O.M.Cap.: *The Right Way* (Birth Control Methods). Yonkers, New York: Mission Almanac, 110 Shonnard Place, 1933. Pp. 16. Price, \$0.05. Quantity Prices.

Donnelly, Francis P., S.J.: *Greek Speaks for Itself*. Unique essay in continuous prose, of more than 500 common English words from the Greek. New York: Fordham University. Pp. 8. Price, \$0.10. Quantity Prices.

## CONTRIBUTORS

AGNESINE, SISTER M., S.S.N.D., New Edition of Ward Method	585
ANNUNCIATA, SISTER MARY, Teaching Rhetoric and English Composition to Freshmen in High School I.	488
ARAND, REV. LOUIS A., S.S., S.T.D., Book Review	252
BRAND, EDELBERT, Ph.D., Reminiscences of a German Teacher I.	385
BROWNE, REV. P. W., D.D., Ph.D., The Quebec School System	271
BUSSARD, REV. PAUL, Book Review	250
CASSIDY, REV. FRANK P., Ph.D., Book Review	629
CATHERINE, SISTER M., O.S.U., Book Reviews	372, 572
CICOGNANI, MOST REV. AMLETO GIOVANNI, D.D., The Pope and the University	524
CODE, REV. JOSEPH B., Guy de Fontgalland	412
COMMINS, W. D., Ph.D., Book Review	377
CROWLEY, FRANCIS M., Ph.D., Informal Teachers' Meetings	178
CULLIGAN, ANNE V., Implications of Mental Health	45
CUMMINGS, JAMES E., The Diocesan School Superintendent's Report: A Source of Publicity	142
The Diocesan School Superintendent's Report: A Fund of Information	294
DOMINICA, SISTER M., O.S.U., Book Review	315
DROBKA, FRANCIS JOSEPH, Ph.D., Book Review	567
EGAN, REV. JOSEPH M., Book Review	565
ELIZABETH, SISTER M. ROSE, C.S.C., What Hope Is There for the Stutterer?	108
FACTEAU, BERNARD A., Docteur de l'Université, Book Review	317
FORAN, T. G., Ph.D., Arithmetic in the Primary Grades	30
Teaching the Fundamental Combinations in Addition	90
The Teaching of Multiplication and Division	161
Drill in Arithmetic	232
The Reading of Problems in Arithmetic	601
FURFEY, REV. PAUL HANLY, Ph.D., The Psychology of the Infant	257
University Courses in Sociology in the United States	540
Book Review	251
GRAHAM, REV. JOHN E., The Seminary Problem	3
The Belgian Seminaries	72
The German Seminaries	150
Seminary Training in France	217
Seminaries in England and Ireland	285
The Seminary in Holland, Switzerland and Austria	327
Rearrangement of the Seminary Curriculum	465
HEALY, REV. PATRICK JOSEPH, S.T.D., Cardinal Hayes: A Treasury of Wisdom and Knowledge	129
JOHNSON, REV. GEORGE, Ph.D., Ad Multos Annos (Tribute to Bishop Ryan)	532

JORDAN, REV. EDWARD B., S.T.D., Book Reviews . . . . .	186, 564
KIRSCH, REV. FELIX M., O.M.Cap., Ph.D., Book Reviews . . . . .	373, 440, 507, 508
KOHLBRENNER, B. J., M.A., A Plan for Cooperative Super- vision . . . . .	334
LISCHKA, CHARLES N., A.M., The Soviet System of Schooling . . . . .	455
Book Review . . . . .	630
MARIE, SISTER JEANNE, The Education of Christian Char- acter . . . . .	345
MARY, SISTER, I.H.M., Ph.D., Some Moral Concepts of Young Children . . . . .	477
MAYNARD, THEODORE, Litt.D., The Question of Form . . . . .	17
MCCABE, GEORGE K., Ph.D., A Case for the Economic Theorists . . . . .	577
MCCORMICK, RT. REV. PATRICK J., Ph.D., Educational Re- search at The Catholic University . . . . .	193
Education in Denmark . . . . .	321
MCDVITT, E. FRANCIS, Pan Americanism and Catholic Edu- cation . . . . .	202
MCGUIRE, MARTIN R. P., Ph.D., Book Review . . . . .	626
MCNICHOLAS, MOST REV. JOHN T., O.P., S.T.M., The Teach- ing Office of the Bishop . . . . .	515
MCVAY, REV. LEO L., S.T.B., J.C.L., Book Reviews 59, 60, 61, 189 316, 374, 375	
O'NEILL, SISTER M. AGATHA, Persistence of Critical Terms . . . . .	420
PARKER, J. B., Ph.D., Book Review . . . . .	442
PURCELL, RICHARD J., Ph.D., Franklin Pierce: A Forgotten President . . . . .	134
The Misjudged Andrew Johnson . . . . .	587
Book Reviews . . . . .	58, 123, 125, 379 381, 438, 439, 505
RAUTH, REV. J. EDWARD, O.S.B., Ph.D., Observations on Sup- plementary Reading Material . . . . .	26
RUSSELL, REV. W. H., S.T.B., J.C.B., A.M., Book Reviews . . . . .	126, 569
RYAN, MOST REV. JAMES HUGH, S.T.D., Ph.D., Preparation for Social and Educational Leadership . . . . .	528
SCHMIEDELER, REV. EDGAR, O.S.B., Ph.D., Book Reviews 374, 437	
SHUSTER, GEORGE N., Education and Journalism . . . . .	65
Book Review . . . . .	185
SMITH, HARVEY, A.M., Effect of the Depression on Child Health . . . . .	449
STOCK, LEO F., Ph.D., Book Reviews . . . . .	313, 625
STRAHAN, REV. SPEER, A.M., Mr. Chesterton's Chaucer . . . . .	211
The Largeness of Chaucer . . . . .	395
TALBOTT, F. LEO, Ph.D., Book Review . . . . .	376
VIEBAN, REV. A., S.S., Book Review . . . . .	315



## BOOK REVIEWS AND NOTICES

ADAM, KARL, St. Augustine (The Odyssey of His Soul), translated by Dom Justin McCann .....	60
ADAMS, JAMES TRUSLOW, Editor, Jeffersonian Principles and Hamiltonian Principles .....	379
ALLERS, RUDOLF, The New Psychologies .....	564
BAKER, D. L. See FULLER, R. W., jt. auth.	
BEAUCHAMP, WALTER L. See PIEPER, CHARLES J., jt. auth.	
BELLOC, HILAIRE; GOODIER, ARCHBISHOP, S.J.; KNOX, REV. RONALD; MARTINDALE, REV. C. C., S.J.; and KAYE-SMITH, SHEILA; Symposium, Why I Am a Catholic .....	374
BERTHIER, VERY REV. J., A Compendium of Theology (Translated by Rev. Sidney A. Raemers, Ph.D.) .....	252
BRILL, ALICE C., and YOUTZ, MAY P., Your Child and His Parents .....	189
BROWNLEE, RAYMOND B. See FULLER, R. W., jt. auth.	
CAMPION, REV. R., and HORAN, ELLAMAY, Ph.D., Religion, a Secondary School Course, Book Three, Engaging in Catholic Action .....	126
CANNON, CARL L., Editor, Narratives of the Trans-Mississippi Frontier .....	505
Personal Adventures of James Pike .....	505
CANTRIL, HADLEY, General and Specific Attitudes .....	377
CAREY, C. H. See HASTINGS, LANSFORD W.	
CORCORAN, REV. T., S.J., D.Litt., Some Lists of Catholic Lay Teachers and Their Illegal Schools in the Later Penal Times .....	439
DENNERLE, REV. GEORGE M., Leading the Little Ones to Christ (Adapted from Gruber-Gatterer <i>Elementarkatechesen</i> ) .....	507
DONAHUE, REV. GEORGE JOSEPH, The Secular Priesthood .....	315
FITZPATRICK, EDWARD A., Ph.D., Editor, St. Ignatius and the Ratio Studiorum .....	630
FORMAN, HENRY JAMES, Our Movie-Made Children .....	567
FRANK, ORLIN D. See PIEPER, CHARLES J., jt. auth.	
FULLER, ROBERT W.; BROWNLEE, R. B., and BAKER, D. L., First Principles of Physics .....	376
GLAVIN, RT. REV. MSGR. JOHN F., Outline Lessons on the Missal and the Mass .....	250
GOEBEL, REV. EDWIN, A.M., Work-Book in Church History (Accompanying "Church History" by Rev. John Laux) ..	375
HAGAN, ALICE C., A.B. See HAGAN, REV. J. R., Ph.D., jt. auth.	
HAGAN, REV. J. R., Ph.D., and HAGAN, ALICE C., A.B., Fabiola (By Cardinal Wiseman) .....	316

HART, CHARLES A., Ph.D., Editor, Aspects of the New Scholastic Philosophy .....	185
HASTINGS, LANSFORD W., The Emigrant's Guide to Oregon and California (Edited by C. H. Carey) .....	505
HAYES, CARLTON J. H.; MOON, PARKER THOMAS, and WAYLAND, JOHN W., World History .....	123
HERBST, REV. WINFRID, S.D.S., Holy Mass .....	61
HONE, J. M., and ROSSI, M., Bishop Berkeley, His Life, Writings, and Philosophy .....	438
HORAN, ELLAMAY, Ph.D. See CAMPION, REV. R., jt. auth.	
HORNE, HERMAN HARRELL, Ph.D., The Democratic Philosophy of Education .....	186
HUSSLEIN, REV. JOSEPH, S.J., The Christian Social Manifesto .....	59
LALLOU, REV. WILLIAM J., D.D., and MARIA, SISTER JOSEFITA, S.S.J., Ph.D., The Missal and Holy Mass .....	373
LANGWORTHY, FRANKLIN, Scenery of the Plains, Mountains and Mines (Edited by P. C. Phillips) .....	505
LORD, REV. DANIEL A., S.J., Religion and Leadership .....	569
MALONE, DUMAS, Editor, Dictionary of American Biography, Vol. IX .....	313
Dictionary of American Biography, Vol. X .....	625
MARIA, SISTER JOSEFITA, S.S.J., Ph.D. See LALLOU, REV. WILLIAM J., D.D., jt. auth.	
MARIQUE, PIERRE J., Ph.D., Pd.D., History of Christian Education .....	629
MAUD, SISTER M., O.S.D., My Convent Life .....	315
MCCANN, DOM JUSTIN. See ADAM, KARL, trans.	
MCNABB, REV. VINCENT, O.P., Encyclical Letter of His Holiness, Pope Pius XI, on Christian Marriage (With Commentary) .....	374
MOON, PARKER THOMAS. See HAYES, CARLTON J. H., jt. auth.	
MORGAN, O. S., Editor, Agricultural Systems of Middle Europe .....	437
NATIONAL CATHOLIC WELFARE CONFERENCE, Bishops' Statement on Present Crisis .....	572
NEWMAN, REV. JOSEPH A., Catechism. Large Size .....	508
PIEPER, CHARLES J.; BEAUCHAMP, WALTER L., and FRANK, ORLIN D., Everyday Problems in Biology .....	442
POSTGATE, R. W., Dear Robert Emmet .....	381
POWELL, F. W., Editor, HALL J. KELLEY, on Oregon .....	505
RAEMERS, REV. SIDNEY A., Ph.D. See BERTHIER, VERY REV. J., trans.	
ROSSI, M. See HONE, J. M., jt. auth.	
RYAN, REV. EDWIN, D.D., The Church in the South American Republics .....	125
SCARRE, A. M., An Introduction to Liturgical Latin .....	626
SCHMIDT-PAULI, ELIZABETH VON, Little Saint Thérèse and Little Saint Elizabeth (Translated by George N. Shuster) .....	572

SCHWERTNER, REV. THOMAS M., O.P., S.T.Lr., LL.D., St. Albert the Great.....	440
SHELTON, WHITFORD H., Minimum Essentials of French....	317
SHUSTER, GEORGE N. See SCHMIDT-PAULI, E. von, trans.	
SMITH, J. RUSSELL, Ph.D., Sc.D., American Lands and Peoples .....	372
STOCK, LEO FRANCIS, Ph.D., Editor, United States Ministers to the Papal States—Instructions and Despatches, 1848-1867 .....	565
THOM, DOUGLAS A., M.D., Normal Youth and Its Everyday Problems .....	251
WARD, JUSTINE, Music First Year—New Edition.....	585
WAYLAND, JOHN W. See HAYES, CARLTON J. H., jt. auth.	
WILLIAMS, REV. JOSEPH J., S.J., Whence the "Black Irish" of Jamaica?.....	58
WISEMAN, CARDINAL, Fabiola (Adapted for School Use by Rev. J. R. Hagan, Ph.D., and Alice C. Hagan, A.B.) .....	316
YOUTZ, MAY P. See BRILL, ALICE C., jt. auth.	

## GENERAL INDEX

- Addition, teaching the fundamental combinations in . . . 90
- Apologetics institute to be founded at the Catholic University . . . . . 51
- Arithmetic
- Drill in . . . . . 232
- In the primary grades . . . . . 30
- Teaching the fundamental combinations in addition . . 90
- The reading of problems in . . 601
- The teaching of multiplication and division . . . . . 161
- Austria, the seminary in Holland, Switzerland and . . . 327
- Belgian, the, seminaries . . . . . 72
- Bishop, the teaching office of the Catholic education, Pan Americanism and . . . . . 202
- Catholic leadership in scientific research, the need of . . . . 549
- Catholic secondary education, second international congress of . . . . . 181
- Catholic University of America, The
- Ad multos annos . . . . . 532
- Apologetics institute to be founded at . . . . . 51
- Educational research at . . . 193
- New Redemptorist college at . 116
- The Pope and the University . 524
- 1933 Summer session . . . . . 423
- See also Social and educational leadership and Ryan, Most Rev. James H.
- Character. See Christian character
- Chaucer
- Mr. Chesterton's . . . . . 211
- The largeness of . . . . . 395
- Child health, effect of the depression on . . . . . 449
- Children, some moral concepts of young . . . . . 477
- Christian character, the education of . . . . . 345
- Confraternity of Christian Doctrine, a study of the . . . 117
- Critical terms, persistence of . . 420
- Cuff, Sister Louise, noted educator, dies . . . . . 52
- Curriculum, rearrangement of the seminary . . . . . 465
- De Fontgalland, Guy . . . . . 412
- Denmark, education in . . . . . 321
- Depression, effect of the, on child health . . . . . 449
- Diocesan school superintendents
- Annual session of . . . . . 359
- Program of meeting . . . . . 244
- The diocesan school superintendent's report: a fund of information . . . . . 294
- The diocesan school superintendent's report: a source of publicity . . . . . 142
- Division, the teaching of multiplication and . . . . . 161
- Drill in arithmetic . . . . . 232
- Economic theorists, a case for the . . . . . 577
- Education
- Catholic program for participation in Education Week . 558
- Education for social justice . 613
- Education in Denmark . . . . . 321
- Journalism and education . . . 65
- The education of Christian character . . . . . 345
- Educational
- Educational notes. See Survey of the field
- Educational research at The Catholic University of America . . . . . 193
- Meeting of Missouri Catholic educational conference . . . . 53
- Preparation for social and educational leadership . . . 528
- England and Ireland, seminaries in . . . . . 285
- English composition
- Persistence of critical terms . 420
- Teaching rhetoric and English composition to freshmen in high school . . . . . 488
- Federal schools control, Secretary Wilbur again opposes . . 52
- France, seminary training in . . . 217
- Garvan, Francis P.
- The need of Catholic leadership in scientific research . 549
- German
- Reminiscences of a German teacher . . . . . 385
- The German seminaries . . . . 150
- Gorgas prize essay . . . . . 616
- Hayes, Cardinal: a treasury of wisdom and knowledge . . . 129

- Health. See Child health  
 High school  
   Teaching rhetoric and English composition to freshmen in high school ..... 488  
   See also Catholic secondary education  
 History manual, Pope Pius XI commends ..... 118  
 Holland, Switzerland and Austria, the seminary in ..... 327  
 Infant, the psychology of the ..... 257  
 International congress of Catholic secondary education, second ..... 181  
 Ireland, seminaries in England and ..... 285  
 Johnson, Andrew, the misjudged ..... 587  
 Journalism and education ..... 65  
 Junior college, the future of the McNicholas, Archbishop, statement of, on the Ohio school case ..... 498  
 Mental health, implications of ..... 45  
 Missouri Catholic educational conference, meeting of ..... 53  
 Moral concepts, some, of young children ..... 477  
 Mosquito, the problem of the. See Gorgas prize essay  
 Multiplication and division, the teaching of ..... 161  
 Music  
   Music in schools ..... 362  
   New Edition of Ward Method ..... 585  
   Pius X School of Liturgical Music offers summer courses ..... 363  
 National Catholic Educational Association  
   Announcement of the thirtieth annual meeting ..... 244  
   Program of superintendents' meeting ..... 244  
   Saint Paul an attractive convention city ..... 303  
   The Saint Paul convention ..... 358  
   30th annual meeting ..... 429  
 N.R.A. rule, non-profit private schools are exempt from codes ..... 497  
 Ohio school case, statement of Archbishop McNicholas on the ..... 498  
 Pan American Day ..... 116  
 Pan Americanism and Catholic education ..... 202  
 Pennsylvania, Catholic educators of, hold annual meeting ..... 361  
 Personality, the religious ..... 117  
 Pierce, Franklin: a forgotten President ..... 134  
 Pius X. School of Liturgical Music offers summer courses ..... 363  
 Poetry  
   The question of form ..... 17  
 Pope Pius XI commends history manual ..... 118  
 Pope, the, and the University ..... 524  
 Pope's message, Catholic dignitaries in special broadcast ..... 55  
 Primary grades, arithmetic in the ..... 30  
 Private schools, non-profit, are exempt from codes, N.R.A. rule ..... 497  
 Psychology  
   The psychology of the infant ..... 257  
   See also Mental health  
 Quebec, the, school system ... 271  
 Radio  
   Pope's message, Catholic dignitaries in special broadcast ..... 55  
 Reading material, observations on supplementary ..... 26  
 Redemptorist, new, college at The Catholic University of America ..... 116  
 Religious personality, the ..... 117  
 Religious vacation schools  
   Religious vacation schools in 1933 ..... 496  
   Religious vacation school plans announced ..... 305  
 Reports. See Diocesan school superintendents  
 Research  
   Educational research at The Catholic University of America ..... 193  
   See also Scientific research  
 Rhetoric and English composition, teaching, to freshmen in high school ..... 488  
 Ryan, Most Rev. James H.  
   Ad multos annos ..... 532  
   Consecration ceremony at National Shrine ..... 547  
   The Pope and the University ..... 524  
   The teaching office of the Bishop ..... 515  
   Vita ..... 513  
 St. Gertrude's School ..... 364  
 Saint Paul, Minn.  
   An attractive convention city ..... 303  
   Announcement of the thirtieth annual meeting of the N.C.E.A. .... 244

The Saint Paul convention..	358	Statistics of Marist Brothers	
School system		Institute .....	56
The Soviet system of school-		Stutterer, what hope is there for	
ing .....	455	the .....	108
The Quebec school system..	271	Supervision, a plan for coopera-	
Scientific research, the need of		tive .....	334
Catholic leadership in.....	519	Survey of the field (Educational	
Secondary education. See Cath-		notes)....	56, 119, 182, 246, 306
olic secondary education		365, 432, 500, 560, 613	
and high school		Switzerland and Austria, the	
Seminaries		seminary in Holland.....	327
Rearrangement of the semi-		Teachers' meetings, informal..	178
nary curriculum .....	465	Teaching	
Seminaries in England and		Reminiscences of a German	
Ireland .....	285	teacher .....	385
Seminary training in France..	217	Teaching rhetoric and English	
The Belgian seminaries.....	72	composition to freshmen in	
The German seminaries.....	150	high school .....	488
The seminary in Holland,		The teaching of multiplication	
Switzerland and Austria....	327	and division .....	161
The seminary problem .....	3	The teaching office of the	
Social and educational leader-		Bishop .....	515
ship, preparation for.....	528	Vacation schools. See Religious	
Social justice, education for....	613	vacation schools	
Sociology, university courses in,		Ward Method, new edition of..	585
in the United States.....	540	Wilbur, Secretary, again opposes	
Soviet, the, system of schooling	455	Federal schools control.....	52

LIBRARY

Loretto Heights College

LORETO, COLORADO



